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ABSTRACT

This report by the Curriculum Task Force represents its considered conclusion about general reform (K-12) of the social studies curriculum in the United States. It presents a balanced and comprehensive curriculum program adapted to the needs of present day society and suggests direction for the future. Part 1 discusses the recommended social studies curriculum for grades K-12. Part 2 discusses the research basis for curriculum choice. Part 3 contains essays prepared by representatives of the professional associations holding membership in the Social Science Association's Task Force for Pre-College Education. These essays provide a perspective from the following fields: (1) anthropology; (2) economics; (3) U.S. history; (4) world history; (5) political science; (6) psychology; and (7) sociology. The characteristics of a social studies curriculum for the 21st century as set forth in this report include the following: (1) It must instill a clear understanding of the roles of citizens in a democracy and provide opportunities for active, engaged participation in civic, cultural, and volunteer activities. (2) It must provide consistent and cumulative learning from kindergarten through grade 12. (3) History and geography should provide the matrix for social studies with concepts from political science, economics, and other social sciences integrated throughout the curriculum. (4) A global approach should be taken, for a curriculum that focuses on one or two major civilizations is neither adequate nor complete. (5) Integration of other subject matter with social studies should be encouraged. (6) Students must be made aware that they have the capacity to shape the future. (7) Teaching strategies should help students become both independent and cooperative learners who develop skills of problem solving, decision making, negotiation, and conflict resolution. (8) Learning materials must incorporate a rich mix of written matter, audiovisual materials, computer programs, and items of material culture. (JB)

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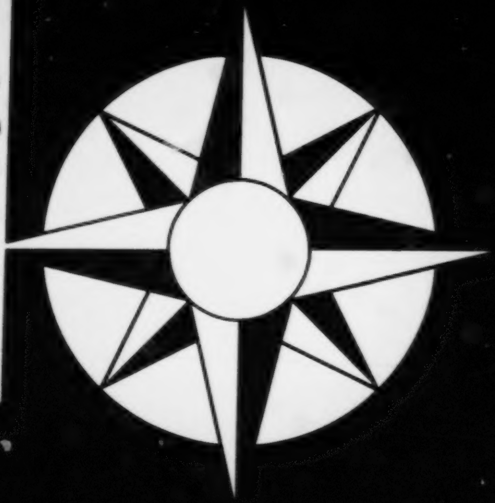

Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century

National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools

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CHARTING A COURSE: SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

A REPORT OF THE
CURRICULUM TASK FORCE OF THE
NATIONAL COMMISSION ON SOCIAL STUDIES
IN THE SCHOOLS

November 1989

To

Hazel Whitman Hertzberg

1918–1988

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FOREWORD

The educational reforms of recent years have awakened the public to the widespread failure of substantial numbers of our high school graduates to identify basic facts and issues of local, state, national, and world history, of American political traditions, institutions, and processes, and of geography. However, with the exception of the Report of the Bradley Commission, *Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools*, and the *Guidelines for Geographic Education*, developed by a joint committee of geographic associations, these excellent reports have said nothing about how we should proceed to meet and overcome the crisis that they describe. While concentrating, rightly, on the evidence of what they perceive as deficient learning, these reports, with the exceptions just noted, do not address themselves to the heart of the matter—what teachers should teach and children should learn. Most of the reports have also neglected to deal with the goals that schooling should attempt to achieve.

What should be the goals and vision of social studies...for citizenship and leadership in the next century?

What should be the goals and vision of the social studies as we set about to prepare young people for citizenship and leadership in the next century? In short, what historical, geographic, political, social and cultural knowledge is indispensable for good citizenship and a rich cultural life?

In many localities and states, a focus upon discrete social science and humanities disciplines without considering their relationships to the whole curriculum, and the introduction of subjects and skills that are unrelated or only remotely related, have fragmented and often marginalized the field of social studies. It is not surprising, therefore, that attempts to provide a unifying synthesis have failed. Identification of the major goals of social studies education—the end product, if you will—is the first step toward determining the nature of the programs which our schools need to develop. There is an urgent national need for clearly defined goals which will unify and give direction to an essential part of the education of American young people.

Some of the present social studies program took form in 1916—a result of the effort of a subcommittee of a National Education Association Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (a successor of earlier commissions and committees) to establish the goals which social studies education should attempt to achieve. In the early 1930s a commission under the aegis of the American Historical Association attempted to realign the goals and programs of the social studies away from ethnocentrism and an exclusive concern about the United States and Western Europe toward a larger world orientation and a new social studies synthesis. However, this Commission on the Social Studies, as it was named, made no clear or forceful recommendations on the framework of the curriculum itself, and its impact was thereby dissipated. Attempts in the 1950s to produce a new synthesis and to define the nature of the relationships of the social science and humanities disciplines to the social studies in the schools also produced limited results. The "reform" upheavals of the 1960s and early 1970s focused the educational community's attention on "how to teach" and a zeroing in on process and content, but without sufficient concern for the overall goals of what young people should learn.

Three other developments had significant impact on school social studies programs. First, special-interest groups, frequently funded by federal monies, pushed for the inclusion of their special projects into the school curriculum. More often than not, such courses (career education, ethnic studies, consumer education, and more recently, environmental, peace, nuclear, and drug education) became part of the social studies program. While most social studies teachers did indeed think that the goals of the new courses were worthy, the effect of their inclusion in the social studies curriculum was to further complicate the question of coherence.

Second, despite the attempts of the "new social studies" to foster "inquiry and discovery," which called for critical thinking and greater attention to scholarly processes of investigation, there were increasing cries for "relevance" and "self-realization," reflective of the societal upheavals of the time. As Professor Hertzberg said: "The new emphasis was both ahistorical and antihistorical. The past was relevant only when it dealt with matters of burning social or personal concern."

Third, even while the pressures were beginning to mount for rigorous attention to the content in the social studies, teachers were losing the support of their traditional allies. In the 1960s, academic historians and social scientists, as well as academics in other fields, were facing rapid growth in their graduate schools, responding to the trend for increasing specialization within their disciplines, and experiencing more intense pressure to publish articles and monographs. Naturally concerned with advancing their own careers, academics evinced less interest in classroom teachers than had once been the case. This development in academia resulted in the failure of efforts to maintain or affect improvement in the goals which govern school programs; that failure remains a legacy of that period. In the 1980s there has been emphasis on "the basics" and discussion of "the excellent," but without much attention to the question of how such desired excellence might be achieved. The recent education "summit," the meeting of the president and the governors to set an agenda for educational reform, also failed to discuss the important question of what the *content* of schooling should be.

For the first time in fifty years all major organizations...were united in a solid coalition dedicated to the reform of that vital portion of the education of young Americans.

Concern over the lack of synthesis in social studies, the lack of coherence in history, geography and the social sciences at all educational levels, and the multitude and complexity of other problems that social studies face, led the governing bodies of the American Historical Association in 1984, and the National Council for the Social Studies in 1985, to call for a national commission to determine goals and recommend ways and means to reorder and strengthen the curriculum and the teaching of history and allied social sciences within social studies programs of the schools. In December 1985, these two organizations agreed to join forces in a combined effort and inaugurate a project to establish the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Organization of American Historians joined the coalition a few months later.

Because social studies draws on all the social sciences, representatives of these founding organizations extended invitations to all associated professional organizations to join in the enterprise. In addition, invitations were issued to school administrators, teachers and members of the concerned public. Since 1985, over eighty organizations concerned with education have been consulted and have offered advice and encouragement to the Commission's work.

Thus, for the first time in more than fifty years, all major organizations and representatives of the concerned public with a vital interest in the social studies in the schools were united in a solid coalition dedicated to the reform of that vital portion of the education of young Americans. The Executive Committee of the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools met and organized itself in 1986 and took steps to organize the National Commission. The Commission held its first meeting in November 1987.

To repeat and summarize, the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools arose from a coalition of social studies educators and university scholars associated with history and the social sciences. The Commission has been distinguished by its strong commitment to a close collaboration between those who, on the one hand, teach social studies and influence its curricular guidelines and statements and, on the other hand, university historians and social scientists concerned about the content, relevance, and coherence of the social studies in the schools.

During the past three years, the National Commission has examined the content and effectiveness of instruction in the social studies in our elementary and secondary schools, determined goals of the social studies, and established priorities of importance in the field. It charged its Curriculum Task Force to make recommendations for reform and disseminate its findings as forcefully and persuasively as possible to the educational community and general public.

There is a strong public consensus that our best minds have to devote themselves to this matter of vital public concern as we approach the twenty-first century. The Commission's overriding purpose was to rally forces from among scholars, educators, and the general public to formulate and enunciate a coherent vision of the role of social studies in the general education of our young people. And this purpose was informed and energized by the conviction that this vision has to be based upon a wise and studied determination of what it is that students should know and value if they are to be equipped to be responsible citizens in a society that will be characterized by increasing complexity, diversity, and worldwide interdependency.

The National Commission on Social Studies believed that the following are the assumptions that should govern the work of the Curriculum Task Force:

1. There is a core of knowledge from history, geography, the social sciences, and the humanities upon which this framework rests;
2. There should be a unifying and coherent framework for the social studies in the schools;
3. The most important thing is what actually goes on in the classroom—what teachers teach and young people learn.

The National Commission made the following charge to the Curriculum Task Force:

1. To define the goals and provide a rationale for the social studies in the schools.
2. To define the indispensable core social studies program; which is to say, to make strong recommendations that some subjects are more important than others; that some subjects are peripheral; and that other subjects now sometimes included in the general rubric of social studies, worthy though they might be, lie outside the field.
3. To study the present status of, the on-going research in, and to make recommendations concerning placement and appropriate content coverage of the following in the social studies program, K-12:
    - a. the history and culture of the people of the United States;
    - b. the history and culture of other people of the world;
    - c. geographic knowledge, national and worldwide, to provide a sense of place and relationship in time to historical and current events;
    - d. American democratic traditions and political institutions, ideals, and values, and a comparing and contrasting of them with other political systems;
    - e. the American economic system and a comparison and contrast of it with other economic systems;
    - f. knowledge of other social sciences, such as anthropology, sociology and psychology, where feasible and appropriate;
    - g. humane values and human achievements in religion, literature, philosophy, the arts, etc., as a foundation for a meaningful and culturally rich life;

Breadth and depth must co-exist...so that wide scanning and deep deliberation, knowing and valuing, can all occur.

h. a social studies curriculum for the elementary schools that is based upon the core curriculum and will lay foundations for work on the secondary level;

i. the ability to think critically and to speak and write clearly and intelligently.

Social studies combines fields and uses them in a direct way to develop a systematic and interrelated study of people in societies, past and present.

We believe that there has never been a more challenging moment for social studies in the schools. As changes in our society and in the larger world place new and increasing demands on our nation and its citizens, it is urgent, even imperative, that young Americans acquire a broader, more *comprehensive* and *connected* understanding of historical and contemporary human affairs. Serious study must begin earlier than is now the case. A way must be found to challenge all students, not just those already committed. Breadth and depth must co-exist or alternate, so that wide scanning and deep deliberation, knowing, and valuing, can all occur.

We are fully aware that there are controversies over the term "social studies." Indeed, our own group experienced such tensions. Some critics suggest that social studies all too often emphasizes skills training rather than subject matter knowledge and that it dwells more on contemporary issues than on the knowledge that provides deeper understanding; other critics, primarily academic scholars, worry that, when subject matters are combined, the important understandings and methodologies inherent in their disciplines might be omitted. The Commission faced such concerns head on and determined, after thoughtful consideration, that social studies remains a useful term; it is widely used in the schools, it has legitimate roots;* and it suggests the multidisciplinary nature of its content. The working definition developed by Curriculum Task Force members seems to us to be practical and sensible. They believe that social studies includes history, geography, government and civics, economics, anthropology, sociology and psychology, as well as subject matter drawn from the humanities—religion, literature and the arts—and that social studies combines those fields and uses them in a direct way to develop a "*systematic* and *interrelated* study of people in societies, past and present."

Historian Charles Beard,** a member of the 1932 Commission on the Social Studies, began his important discussion of the field by stating: "Such is the unity of all things that the first sentence on instruction in the social studies in the schools strikes into a seamless web too large for any human eye." That seamless web still exists. The human experience cannot be taught and comprehended through a single discipline. To be sure, students must know history and geography, must understand the demands of self-government and appropriate civic behavior, must understand how economic systems operate, must learn enough of anthropology, sociology and psychology to understand human behavior, but they must also comprehend the *interrelationships* among those subjects and their *combined* power to explain the past and the current human condition, and future possibilities.

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* See another Commission publication, David Jenness, *Making Sense of Social Studies*, New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1990, for the historical background of the term and the ways in which it is used in the schools.

** *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*, Part I of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932, p. 1.

Individuals do not think well if they do not understand their own history, do not appreciate political and cultural diversity, and do not understand the economic and sociological realities of a rapidly changing world.

Today's social studies curriculum must change because the schools themselves are changing—because our society is changing, and because our society is changing in its relation to the world. Recent immigration is close to a historic high. The latest newcomers to America, predominantly from Asian and Latin American countries, are changing the ethnic makeup and median age of our population. But this is nothing new in our history. From the founding of our nation, immigrants have proved a source of strength and innovation in our national life. At a time when many persons are concerned with American economic competitiveness in relation to other nations, it should be a source of pride that those who seek democratic participation come to us.

No branch of the school curriculum is more central than social studies. The history and the growing importance of social studies over the past century is a record to be proud of, one which brings the confidence that is needed today. Over the past hundred years, the central subjects of history and geography—the twin disciplines on which the content of social studies can be organized—have adapted to new national and personal needs. The field of American history has altered from coverage of the European background of a largely agrarian and early-industrial United States to a deeper history of the political, economic, cultural, and social complexity of our nation in the modern world. In the course of this broadening and deepening, history has provided its own avenue for the inclusion of new peoples within our society, and of minorities whose history, in relation to the national history, is only now being written. In this very process, the basis for American citizenship has been extended. Americans now see that the recent and future course of our nation will be fully understood only in the rich context of world history in its political, cultural and social complexity. Geography, similarly, has broadened its focus from the filling-in of the continent to the relation of the United States to the rest of the Americas, and, especially after the Second World War, to the rest of the globe. These fields, together with anthropology, political science, economics, and sociology, have responded as the understanding of Latin America, Africa, and Asia became important to the national agenda.

We have no doubt that the social studies in the schools can continue to adapt and expand so as to take on the pressing task of acquainting young people with the truly global dimensions of social change today and the truly global interconnectedness of states and peoples. In a world in which corporations operate transnationally, communication around the globe can be virtually instantaneous, and the most important problems will have to be solved on an international basis—in such a world the multidisciplinary study of humankind in its variety, rootedness, and interrelatedness becomes even more essential. Social studies not only convey essential knowledge in their own right, but provide a bridge and a context for understanding of scientific and humanistic values and concerns.

The understanding and transmission of citizenship, or "civic virtue," has been a continuing responsibility of the schools, and particularly of social studies. We believe that good citizenship is not just a matter of the observance of outward forms, transmitted from the old to the young, but also a matter of reasoned conviction, the end result of people thinking for themselves. Each generation faces new challenges, for which lessons from the past have much relevance. Individuals do not think well if they do not understand their own history, appreciate political and cultural diversity, and understand the economic and sociological realities of a rapidly changing world. It is unfortunately true that education can produce factual knowledge without instilling the ability to ponder, reflect, and use knowledge in a practical way. That continues to be, to some extent, an unmet goal of social studies and the schools. But it should be obvious that energizing thinking about civic responsibility and sociopolitical participation cannot occur usefully without the facts and concepts and habits of mind that social studies education can and must provide to all — not just leaders, or the college-educated, or the technologically up to date.

One of the great strengths of social studies is the realization that knowledge is human-made, something forged, not a natural resource that is stumbled upon. In the words of our fellow Commissioner, Paul Bohannan: "We are right now making the future, just as we live in a present that was made for us by the past. Where are we going? What will be the result of our actions?" Such questions concern the humanities and the sciences as well as the social studies, but there is a sense in which *social* study and social action in part determines future outcomes. Ultimately, social study is justified in the practice of living, as individuals, families, groups, and societies make decisions. To the extent that we fail to educate all persons toward decision-making in these and many related regards, we reduce our own resources and endanger our own future.

The arrangements and improvements suggested in the report that follows neither can nor will be adopted by all schools in short order. All we can do, ultimately, is to inquire about how things stand and where things could be improved — and report these findings and opinions to all of those who care about education into the 21st century. But we believe this report by the Curriculum Task Force has set out a model that will challenge and encourage social studies educators to look to the future and to undertake a school program that will help all of America's children and adolescents to meet the challenges that lie ahead of us now and in the century to come.

The National Commission presents the report of its Curriculum Task Force with great satisfaction. We realize that there is no single road to social studies reform. We are pleased to note that several states have come forth with exciting, comprehensive curriculum plans. We think that the recent Report of the Bradley Commission, which proposes a strongly history-centered social studies curriculum has much merit; in fact, two members of the National Commission were also members of the Bradley Commission. However, the report of our own Task Force represents our considered conclusion about general reform (K-12) of the social studies curriculum. It presents, we believe, a balanced and comprehensive curriculum program adapted to the needs of our present day society, and suggests direction for the future.

We are pleased to present this report for the thoughtful consideration of the American public. We are deeply grateful to William H. McNeill and Jean Craven, co-chairs of the Task Force, for their leadership in this important effort. As principal writer for the Task Force, Professor McNeill deserves special mention. With great dedication, he cheerfully wrote successive drafts of the report, taking into account the concerns and suggestions of reviewers, while still maintaining the integrity of full Task Force members' deliberations.

Finally, we acknowledge a debt of gratitude that can never be fully expressed to Fay D. Metcalf, who served as Executive Director of the National Commission since 1986. With complete dedication and at considerable personal sacrifice, she has brought together the efforts of numerous and diverse people. She has energized all of us and kept us on the path which we originally set out for ourselves.

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PART I: THE CURRICULUM

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CHARACTERISTICS OF A SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

1. A well-developed social studies curriculum must instill a clear understanding of the roles of citizens in a democracy and provide opportunities for active, engaged participation in civic, cultural and volunteer activities designed to enhance the quality of life in the community and in the nation.

2. A complete social studies curriculum provides for *consistent* and *cumulative* learning from *kindergarten* through *12th grade*. At each grade level, students should build upon knowledge and skills already learned and should receive preparation for the levels yet to come. Redundant, superficial coverage should be replaced with carefully articulated in-depth studies.

3. Because they offer the perspectives of time and place, history and geography should provide the matrix or framework for social studies; yet concepts and understandings from political science, economics and the other social sciences must be integrated throughout all social studies courses so that by the end of 12th grade, students will have a firm understanding of their principles and methodologies.

4. *Selective* studies of the history, geography, government and economic systems of the major civilizations and societies should together receive attention at least equal to the study of the history, geography, government, economics and society of the United States. A curriculum that focuses on only one or two major civilizations or geographic areas while ignoring others is neither adequate nor complete.

5. Social studies provides the obvious connection between the humanities and the natural and physical sciences. To assist students to see the interrelationships among branches of knowledge, integration of other subject matter with social studies should be encouraged whenever possible.

6. Content knowledge from the social studies should not be treated merely as received knowledge to be accepted and memorized, but as the means through which open and vital questions may be explored and confronted. Students must be made aware that just as contemporary events have been shaped by actions taken by people in the past, they themselves have the capacity to shape the future.

7. Reading, writing, observing, debating, role-play, or simulations, working with statistical data and using appropriate critical thinking skills should be an integral part of social studies instruction. Teaching strategies should help students to become both independent and cooperative learners who develop skills of problem solving, decision making, negotiation and conflict resolution.

8. Learning materials must incorporate a rich mix of written matter, including original sources, literature and expository writing; a variety of audiovisual materials including films, television and interactive media; a collection of items of material culture including artifacts, photographs, census records and historical maps; and computer programs for writing and analyzing social, economic and geographic data. Social studies coursework should teach students to evaluate the reliability of all such sources of information and to be aware of the ways in which various media select, shape, and constrain information.

9. A complete social studies curriculum for students can only be provided through the support of school boards, school administrators and the community. Teachers must be granted appropriate in-service opportunities for enhancing their content knowledge and their abilities to use appropriate teaching strategies. Above all, teachers must be provided substantial blocks of time in which to prepare course outlines, teaching guides and lesson plans.

10. The core of essential knowledge to be incorporated in the instructional program at every level must be selective enough to provide time for extended in-depth study and must be directed toward the end goals of social studies education—the development of thoughtful Americans who have the capacities for living effective personal and public lives.

SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

PREAMBLE

Classrooms today bring together young people of many backgrounds with a broad spectrum of life experiences. We can expect an even more diverse student population in the twenty-first century. This diversity enriches our nation even as it presents a new challenge to develop social education that integrates all students into our system of democratic government and helps them to subscribe to the values from our past—especially our devotion to democratic values and procedures.

The coexistence of increasing diversity and cherished tradition require social studies courses in our schools to cultivate participatory citizenship and encourage the growth of independent, knowledgeable young adults who will conduct their lives in accord with democratic and ethical principles. This requires study of:

(a) the evolving responsibilities and rights of citizens of the United States

(b) the interactions prompted by migrations of peoples and the emergence of a system of global communications connecting and often melding diverse cultural heritages

(c) the principal group identities that compete for every person's loyalty—family, community, nation, and world—and how they interact, sometimes conflict, and necessarily coexist.

The study of social involvement and often competing loyalties addresses basic questions: "Who am I?" "To what communities do I belong?" "What does citizenship in our nation require of me as an individual and as a member of all the various groups to which I belong?" "What does being a member of the world community mean to me and to my nation?" and "How have things changed, and how *should* they change in time to come?" These questions must, in practice, be answered by every young person. They are dealt with extensively only in social studies course work. Therefore, systematic social studies are needed for successful transition from childhood to adult life, beginning in the primary grades and continuing throughout secondary school.

THE GOALS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

The Social Studies Curriculum should enable students to develop:

(1) Civic responsibility and active civic participation.

(2) Perspectives on their own life experiences so they see themselves as part of the larger human adventure in time and place.

(3) A critical understanding of the history, geography, economic, political and social institutions, traditions, and values of the United States as expressed in both their unity and diversity.

(4) An understanding of other peoples and the unity and diversity of world history, geography, institutions, traditions and values.

(5) Critical attitudes and analytical perspectives appropriate to analysis of the human condition.

A SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

After careful deliberation, the Curriculum Task Force of the National Commission proposes this structure as appropriate for the social studies in our schools.

GRADES K–3

Social studies from kindergarten through grade three should set the tone and lay the foundation for the social studies education that follows. An important goal in these early years is to excite student interest in social studies and to capitalize on the eagerness of young children to learn. If these years of exposure to the social studies are wasted, important opportunities for acquiring social studies knowledge are lost. An effective K-3 social studies curriculum can help students gain a better understanding of themselves, as well as a view of the world within and beyond the walls of their classroom.

In these formative years it is imperative that the social studies curriculum avoid superficiality and be well defined and relevant to the needs and interests of young learners. Many social studies concepts are abstract; nevertheless, even very young students can begin to grasp these concepts if they are presented in active and engaging ways appropriate to their interests and cognitive development.

Early on, students should learn that each individual plays multiple and varied roles and that roles change as circumstances change.

A balance should be maintained across local, national and global information and concepts so that children can begin to recognize how details fit into a larger whole. K-3 social studies must incorporate an international perspective and provide multicultural experiences in an authentic and culturally sensitive manner. Early on, students should learn that each individual plays multiple and varied roles and that roles change as circumstances change. For example, students in the classroom should learn to make decisions as individuals and as members of a group.

Some of these decisions deal with learning how to make and why to follow school and community rules. Experiences in making such decisions mark the beginning of training in the vital citizenship participation skills that must be nurtured and guided throughout the K-12 school years. Such preparation is vital for students who will live most of their lives in a nation with an increasingly diverse citizenry and in an international society that will be increasingly interdependent.

Balance in the curriculum can be achieved in a number of ways that capitalize on the child's growing sense of time and place. Children readily understand such concepts as change, location, diversity, justice, power and trade-offs when they are presented in concrete terms. Basic concepts of social science disciplines targeted for student mastery at the upper grade levels should be introduced through concrete applications to particular situations during second and third grades.

Kindergarten children can examine their own immediate environment through neighborhood walks, as well as environments far away in time and space through pictures and films. Students can learn what all children and their families have in common, in what ways they differ, and how rules for behavior and for social interaction always exist, even though those rules may vary from case to case and may change over time. These understandings can be achieved through use of songs, stories, pictures, artifacts, role-play, map-making, model-building and similar classroom experiences.

A good rule of thumb would be to balance material about the United States with about an equal number of stories about other times and places...

First graders readily comprehend the concept of community. They can understand that communities, past and present, local and world wide, were developed to meet human needs for love and affection, for protection from natural and human dangers and for the production and dissemination of goods and services. Through a study of the differences in environment—location, size and appearance—and the particular services provided, students can begin to understand that laws regulate larger communities as rules help to regulate the classroom. They should learn that this has always been the case, among all kinds of people everywhere in the world.

Stories about and descriptions of different sorts of people living under different conditions—tropical rain forest hunters, farmers in European villages, pioneers in the United States, American Indians from the immediate region, etc.—offer an appropriate way to expand children's horizons. Stories from the past, likewise, can do the same. A good rule of thumb would be to balance material about the United States with about an equal number of stories about other times and places so that a beginning sense of the variety of the earth could arise without straining to "cover" everything.

Throughout these early grades, students are developing mental models of the physical and the social world. An introduction to geographic skills should be integrated into all aspects of the K-3 curriculum. Each new experience should be located in space with use of maps and globes; and located in time as well by use of simple time lines, measured perhaps in "grandfathers", i.e., the number of generations ago something took place. While young children may not yet fully comprehend the concept of time, they do know the difference between long ago and the present and can understand the existence of future possibilities. Somewhat older children can identify specific historical eras.

... a beginning sense of the variety of the earth could arise without straining to "cover"everything.

Heroes and heroines ought to play a prominent part in early social studies, providing models for emulation and admiration, but common people should also be studied. Choosing figures so as to balance across the sorts of social divisions in our country is important: we need black and white, male and female, Native Americans, Asians and Hispanics, not necessarily balanced to reflect the exact ethnic composition of the class, but balanced to reflect the realities of the world and of the cultural landscape of our country.

Words are not enough. Drawing, building, singing and acting out parts can all be mobilized to make learning more fun, and stimulate the children's imagination to reach out toward the variety of human social experience. Selective use of world literature, art, music and artifacts helps children to see the world's variety and begin to understand how it has changed over time.

In most K-3 classrooms, the same teacher will be asked to teach reading, arithmetic and social studies. This constitutes a great opportunity, for a teacher who takes the social studies seriously can bring that dimension to bear on almost everything done in class. Reading skills can be developed on materials that also have social studies value; and by making sure that whatever the pupils read about is located in time and space and fits onto a time line and a map, the teacher can begin to build a coherent picture of the world we live in for his or her pupils.

Everything in school can be grist for the mill. Arithmetic can be applied to the work of a storekeeper or a farmer, for instance, if the teacher cares to ask the pupils to add, subtract, multiply and divide real things.

Holidays, too, can serve as occasions for projects that will acquaint pupils with social studies concepts and information. National holidays are obvious; religious holidays as celebrated around the world are also possible occasions for teaching students about important ideas and customs that co-exist with one another in our country and in the world, as long as teachers take pains to inform and not to indoctrinate the children.

...all experiences...need to be held together by connecting each of them to a matrix of time and place...

Finally, social studies K-3 must have coherence and balance year to year as well as within each grade. Overlapping, when it occurs, should be deliberate, not inadvertent. Teachers should plan to distribute attention in successive years of schooling so as to leave no gaping holes and avoid excessive concentration on only a part of the human scene.

By such means, a sound and imaginative social studies program ought to assure that by the end of grade 3 pupils have achieved an elementary understanding of world geography—continents, major countries and climate zones, for example—and have a familiarity through maps with their immediate environment at neighborhood, city, state and national levels. They ought also to know a lot about the community in which they live and have an initial understanding of the civic and political traditions of the United States together with a vivid sense of the variety of human life in different continents and at different times in the past.

Sampling, not coverage, is the way to achieve these goals. But all the separate experiences and exposures that sampling arouses in the pupils' minds need to be held together by connecting each of them to a matrix of place and time using maps and time lines. Such a place and time matrix becomes an organizing instrument, reducing confusion and making it easier to assimilate and remember new information as it comes along. Without such a matrix, confusion is unavoidable; with it, a basis for further mastery of the social studies is firmly established.

GRADES 4–6

By grades 4-6, students are ready to explore human time and occupied space more systematically. A thoughtfully developed curriculum must tap students' interest in the world around them. Three social studies courses should be taught during these grades: a) United States history, b) world history, and c) geography, both physical and cultural. These courses must draw much of their content from concepts of the social sciences, especially political science, economics and anthropology. The order in which these courses are taught is less important than that each course receives the equivalent of a full year's attention.

...care should be taken to sample the variety of among the great cultures of the world.

An introduction to United States history can provide students with an expanded understanding of our civic tradition and our political system. Stories about Native Americans, early European explorers and settlers, the nation's founders, later immigrants and pioneers, abolitionists, populists, suffragists, inventors, artists, business and labor leaders and other political, economic and cultural figures will help students to understand the diversity and historical complexity of American society.

The basic documents of American government should be introduced to students at this point. In particular, students should study the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution and the Bill of Rights, and begin to learn how these documents have been interpreted and applied in practice. Individuals and groups who have struggled to actualize democratic principles and values should be a major focus. Attention must also be given to those Native American groups who have struggled to maintain alternative cultural, political and economic systems. The history of the United States from colonial beginnings to the present should be brought into a more complete chronological and spatial focus in these years. However, the course should not be a comprehensive survey, but taught with selective emphases to be studied in depth.

Separate attention to geography is needed.

For the broader human adventure, a similarly selective approach is needed. Materials for the study of world history should be chosen to present a balanced picture of the variety of human experience. The study ought first to establish the main economic, cultural and political patterns of the human past: Paleolithic hunting and gathering, Neolithic villages, early urban civilizations in the Eastern and Western hemispheres, including Africa and Latin America, and then the emergence of a worldwide industrial-commercial cosmopolitanism characteristic of much of the world in modern times. This study can be given perspective by examining the slowly changing capacity of humankind to transform the environment.

Within this framework, attention must be focused on particular times and places, so students will gain a vivid sense of human reality and its distinct expression in different social, political, economic and geographic settings. Exact choices will vary depending on both teacher and student interest; but care should be taken to sample adequately the variety of human experience across the centuries and among the great cultures of the world. Topics that should receive particular emphasis are: the ways that early civilizations throughout the world developed systems of beliefs about the nature of the world, about beauty, and about universal notions of right and wrong, and how these and other beliefs resulted in the laws, religions, languages, economics, communication and technology that have shaped the modern world.

Separate attention to geography is needed to acquaint pupils with global patterns of atmospheric and oceanic circulation, the resulting climate patterns of different parts of the earth and with plate tectonics and the varied physical landscapes that occur on the drifting continents. This first course in physical geography must acquaint the students with broad regional patterns of the world's climate, topography, soils, vegetation and water resources. Since climate is so powerful a factor in physical geography, major attention should be given to its pattern and to how it relates to the tilt of the earth's axis and earth-sun relationships.

By the end of sixth grade, the concept of chronology should be firmly established.

Once these world patterns of physical geography have been studied, students should be introduced to the regional patterns of human land use, agriculture, economic activity and environment. Effective instruction in this first year of geography will equip the social studies student to understand more intelligently the history and geography in all subsequent grades. In addition, human geography should explore political boundaries and place names and give some attention to economic activities that are altering environmental conditions on a global scale—ozone depletion, global warming, acid rain, and so on.

By the end of grade six, pupils should know much factual information from the disciplines of history, geography, government and economics and have an elementary sense of how that information relates to national and global understanding. Time lines, charts, graphs and maps are necessary devices for students to use as they order their growing stock of information and deepen their comprehension. By the end of sixth grade, the concept of chronology should be firmly established. Students should know what "long ago" means locally as well as in relation to their work in grades 4-6. They should know how mound builders of Ohio or Neolithic sites in New Mexico fit into the big picture and where such events as the founding of Williamsburg or the Civil War or the Dust Bowl fit into the time line of national history.

A course focusing on the local community is of particular importance for citizens of a highly mobile society.

GRADES 7 AND 8

By grades 7 and 8, children's sense of self-identity and the patterns of their relationships to peers, to adults and to the larger community are undergoing enormous change. It is critical that by this age students develop the knowledge, skills and ethical attitudes necessary for effective, active citizenship. At these grades, students ought to concentrate their attention on local and national social, political and economic relationships and patterns of behavior. Two courses are recommended: a study of the local community and a study of the nation.

A course focusing on the local community is of particular importance for citizens of a highly mobile society. Students who understand the complex interactions, historical and contemporary, of any particular community, as well as its interrelationships with the state, nation and the broader world, will be able to adapt to new locales and to take responsibility for participation in community affairs. The use of the student's local community promotes essential skills in observation, speculation, analysis and evaluation. The capacity to look carefully and productively at the worlds we have created in our neighborhoods, towns, cities and countryside is a major goal of effective social studies education at all levels. Study of the local area should include the neighborhood and, for most schools, the town or city in which the school is located. Where mandated, state history and geography can be taught along with the local community, with emphasis upon social changes within state borders.

Local history, energetically pursued, can break down the barriers between school and the larger world.

The study should include an examination of local social realities in the form of ethnic relationships, religious, occupational and gender differences—sensitive but important issues in most American communities. To teach about such issues is a major and critical responsibility for the social studies in the schools. Because by this age most students have moved beyond the family circle to explore the society around them, such study can influence their behavior significantly, as well as educate them for a more useful understanding of their daily world.

The course should examine the neighborhood of the school to discover how past changes altered the community, its cultures and landscapes, its economic base and political organization from the time of its origin to the present. The study of local public issues—housing, sanitation, transportation, environmental pollution, for example—helps students to understand that good citizenship requires clear knowledge of the issues themselves and awareness of the mechanisms used to reconcile different interests and opinions, together with responsible action aimed at contributing to the welfare of the community.

Local history, energetically pursued, can break down the barriers between school and the larger world. The study of old buildings—commercial, public and residential—and their successive architectural styles can reveal much about how people in the area have made their livings, how they displayed their public idealism and how they organized and lived within their private spaces. Conducting oral interviews with older neighborhood residents, analyzing historical census data, studying old photographs and consulting newspaper files can initiate students in active historical and geographic research, help orient them to their immediate environs and encourage them to be more active in their own community. The habit of community service and the sense of responsibility for the welfare of the community can evolve naturally as students become immersed in these studies.

Since the social scene within and surrounding each school is unique, a course devoted to exploring that scene must be different from anything taught elsewhere. Teaching materials must be locally developed by teachers and by the students themselves. Schools often have some records—yearbooks, teacher handbooks, floor plans or even architectural drawings that can be used for historical investigation. Every state library has historical archives with rich holdings of local materials—old newspaper files, articles in state history journals that recount events in local communities, WPA project interviews and early photographs. Historical maps abound—maps of the original Indian lands, plat and insurance maps, population density maps over several decades, telephone call maps of larger regions, airline route maps to international destinations. These all provide excellent primary documents for spatial and historical research and exploration. Local businesses may provide, and students can construct, maps which indicate the origin of goods sold in the region as well as the destination of goods produced locally. Such information helps students to grasp not only the local and national connections of their "home town," but also its relationship to the broader world. Church and civic records of births, marriages and deaths can provide rich information about the local effects of migration and disease over time. This study of the evolution of a local neighborhood or landscape affords critically important lessons in the weaving together of history, geography and so many other perspectives on the human effort.

Most communities have also developed pamphlets on local history, and these provide a good starting point for students' investigations. Local historical and geographical societies are often eager to help teachers develop additional materials. Guide books and articles in professional journals as well can provide guidelines for teachers as to methods for setting up such courses in rural, suburban and large metropolitan areas.

The second major course to be taught in grades 7 and 8 addresses the economic and political development of the United States and its changing socio-economic-political relationships with the rest of the world.

For the United States itself, students particularly need to develop a fuller understanding of how the Constitution and the amendments to it shaped, and were shaped by, the social and economic changes that came to the country in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. This is a particularly good time for legal education and a study of how the court system as well as the executive and legislative branches of government have worked together to develop the democratic form of government we enjoy today.

This is also an appropriate time for students to begin comparative study of capitalism, socialism and communism. Through an examination of selective case studies of different kinds of economic systems, students should examine the changing roles our country has played in the world system. The United States has passed from colonial to metropolitan status and now may be moving toward a new dependency on foreign capital. Students should be helped to understand how both political and economic systems work together to influence international events. It is important that social studies help students understand that our entire history has taken shape in response to significant foreign contributions, threats and resources. Our future is likely to see an elaboration of this global link.

It is important that social studies help students understand that our entire history has taken shape in response to significant foreign contributions, threats, and resources. Our future is likely to see an elaboration of this global link.

Exploration of these various topics requires—beyond the framework of history and geography—the integration of concepts from economics, government or political science and the behavioral sciences. Examination of public policy questions at the local, national and international level will reinforce the civic tradition of the United States. Such study will further develop students' knowledge of their responsibility for active civic participation. By studying the community and the nation in consecutive years, students will be better able to grasp the relationships among and between their own overlapping roles and identities and their often overlapping loyalties, and understand better their connections to the other citizens with whom they share their locality and the nation.

GRADES 9-12

An extension of the study of United States history and geography and of world history and geography is appropriate in these grades when students are more mature and analytical. The best arrangement would be to actually combine study of the United States with study of the world by teaching our nation's history as part of the general story of humanity—including cultural, economic and political systems—in recent centuries. To achieve this end, a three year-sequence is needed. If state mandates require the separate teaching of the history of the United States, particular days, weeks, or semesters can be set aside for that purpose. However, integration between national and world historical change is clearly preferable, since it allows students to connect the national past with its larger international setting.

1. World and American History and Geography to 1750

This course should emphasize major civilizations with some attention to other societies as well. It should begin with a review of hunting and gathering societies, the transition to agriculture and the consequent impact on the environment. The salient characteristics of classical civilizations should be identified and reviewed, e.g., caste, Confucian family, natural law, democracy. As students proceed in their study from one civilization to another, certain themes such as gender roles, technological innovation, the evolution of social classes, environmental transformation, the growth of bureaucracy, codification of law and the structure and types of government should be considered so that students will develop several bases for comparison.

...the way to see human history as a whole is to pay special attention to the cultural, economic and political links that ran across different civilizations and connected them...

The uniqueness of each culture needs to be understood; but the way to see human history as a whole is to pay special attention to the cultural, economic and political links that ran across different civilizations and connected them with other societies of their regions. Such connections were real even if relatively weak in the earliest phases of human history: witness the spread of agriculture in the "Old" World and the "New"; or the diffusion of chariots and the seven day week in the second millennium B.C. from Mesopotamia westward to Sweden and eastward to China. Major subsequent landmarks include: the opening of regular caravan trade from China to Syria in the first Century B.C.; successive enlargements of communication and trade networks within Eurasia first by the Moslems after 650; then by the Chinese after 1000; and finally by the Europeans after 1500, when their ships began to cross all the oceans of earth, bringing Old and New Worlds together into a single interactive whole.

An effort to understand Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam and Judaism from the point of view of believers is important; otherwise such world views and ways of life will seem simply exotic to the young.

Religion is a sensitive issue and students must study various religions with objectivity and understanding. Other enduring cultural achievements of the past deserve attention as well—especially art, architecture, music and literature.

Three transformation of modern times should be emphasized—the democratic revolution, the industrial and technological revolution, and the modern growth and mobility of population.

If the prior history of the Old and New Worlds has been presented as a process of expanding interactive circles—for a similar process took place in the Americas with Mexico and Peru as metropolitan centers, extending their influence outward north and south—the climactic coming together after Columbus will be understood as the geographical completion of a process that began when significant differentiation of human skills first manifested itself.

The two world systems that came together after Columbus were connected by exchange of goods, plants, skills, and knowledge as well as by the impact of disease. Attention to biological exchanges will prepare students for understanding the catastrophe that came to American Indian civilizations and cultures when Eurasian and African diseases spread through indigenous populations and eased the way for the advance of European settlement.

In addition, it is worth emphasizing that each culture influences others in any encounter. Civilizations spread, but elements of the cultures of those peoples who were incorporated into the expanded civilization survived and enriched the resulting amalgam. Greek-Oriental followed by Greek-Roman, and Roman-German minglings are obvious from the European past. European-Native American encounters were of this character; so were European-African encounters on both sides of the Atlantic. In view of the racial composition of our country, attention to nations of Africa, to indigenous American Indian societies and to the mingling of cultural heritages within the United States is essential.

Specific attention to the colonial history and geography of the Americas generally and of the United States specifically can best be taught within this course by setting aside a specific number of weeks for its study within the frame established by the study of the larger world. While such study would provide the basis for comparison with the colonial experience in other parts of the world—Asia, Africa and Latin America—it ought to give enough attention to the English and European side of the Atlantic to make clear how our colonial past was shaped and governed by ideas of liberty, religion, law and commerce imported from Europe. In this way the specifically European heritage of our country would not be short changed. Such study would naturally come at the close of the course.

2. World and American History and Geography, 1750-1900

Three transformations of modern times should be emphasized in this course: the *democratic revolution*, the *industrial and technological revolution* and the *modern growth and mobility of population* and the impact that has had.

The distinguishing characteristic of the democratic revolution is the present-day worldwide belief in ideas of political legitimacy whereby governments claim to rule by virtue of consent of the governed. The United States' style of elective democracy is not the only form taken by modern governments that claim to embody the will of the people. Quite the contrary, military, Fascist and Communist governments also claim the same legitimacy and must be studied as examples of how a variety of modern states have sought to mobilize popular support.

The more we understand about the international influences on our past, the more prepared we will be to play a strong role in the global affairs of our future.

The solid advantages of popular consensus behind a freely elected government should be made clear, and the circumstances that allow such a system to flourish deserve the most careful attention. But what happens when consensus is not achieved must also be examined, for this is one cause for dictatorship and other oppressive forms of government. In our time such governments still claim to derive their powers from the consent of the people, even when oppressing them, and therefore go to great lengths to stage-manage elections. Students need to understand the variety of the political scene as it exists in the world around them. They must appreciate how essential consensus is for the support of effective democratic government and how difficult it is to re-establish consensus when it breaks down.

The distinguishing characteristic of the industrial revolution is the use of inanimate power for human purposes, not solely in manufacturing, but for transport and communication and for food production as well. Linkage between technology and science, deliberately and systematically cultivated after about 1880, gave new impetus to invention, transformed everyday life and its surrounding landscape profoundly and at an increasing pace, down to the present.

The modern surge of population growth, beginning about 1750, has been no less fundamental in shaping the history of recent centuries. Migration from rural villages to urban centers, where new industry established itself, was matched by massive emigration and immigration across political boundaries and oceanic and continental distances. Tracing these human flows through recent centuries is therefore as important for understanding our world as is familiarity with the courses of the democratic and industrial revolutions. The steady movement of humans in pursuit of greater opportunities has created a continual stream of new languages, customs, belief systems and resourcefulness. This force continues to the present.

The three themes could be studied seriatim, but a clearer notion of the historical and geographical process within which we still live might be attained if all three dominant themes of modern times—the democratic revolution, the industrial and technological revolution and the modern growth and mobility of population—are shown to have interacted from the time each manifested itself.

Thus if the course used political and economic landmarks for structuring units of study, as seems the most sensible approach, then attention to the industrial (and commercial) environment within which political and economic events took place would be called for, as well as some significant attention to demographic shifts. The course might start with the American Revolution, and after appropriate examination of democratic ideas and ideals—as expressed in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution and the Bill of Rights and their imperfect embodiment in the new government—consider also the economic and the demographic circumstances that contributed to the American success. Similarly, the French and industrial revolutions in Europe might be studied together, as strikingly successful responses to population growth in France and Britain. The subsequent spread of democracy, capitalism and industrial technology to other lands would have to be surveyed by choosing critical moments and places: the South American revolutions of Bolivar's age; Bismarck's Germany; westward expansion, the Civil War and Reconstruction in the United States; the opening of Japan and the constituting of the new government—these are all examples of the melding of influences. The rise of European colonial empires and the tension between the European dominion in Africa and Asia and the idea that government can only acquire legitimacy by consent of the governed would also be appropriate.

Exact choice of topics to be studied will, of course, vary from school to school and teacher to teacher, but the course can retain cohesion all the same as long as the three master themes of modern times are kept clearly in view for each particular part of the globe and segment of time that is selected for detailed study.

Throughout the course human gains need to be balanced against losses: the suffering of defeated and economically displaced populations (including Native Americans, American Tories and French aristocrats) is part of human reality as well as the triumphs of generals and of captains of industry.

The specific place of the United States in these world transformations may be given separate treatment, but closer integration is preferable. Treating changes in the United States as part of larger movements—the spread of industrialism, the rise of modern imperialism and the demographic surge behind European emigration and immigration to the United States—would put the past of our country into the larger human frame where it undoubtedly belongs. The more we understand about the international influences on our past, the more prepared we will be to play a strong role in the global affairs of our future.

3. World and American History and Geography Since 1900

The theme of this course ought to be the study of how the three dominant movements of the 19th century worked themselves out in the 20th.

The course requires attention to the spread of liberal democratic ideals and practice beyond the western world; the rise of Marxist and Fascist challenges to capitalistic liberal democratic ideals; and the collapse of European colonial empires. World Wars I and II demand a good deal of attention, but other changes—intensified communications, new weaponry, and global environmental change and pollution, together with transformations in work and gender roles and the so-called demographic transformation whereby lowered birth rates have checked population growth among the richer industrialized peoples—also require attention. It is important not to overload the course nor to lose sight of the main lines of 20th century experience: 1) *the democratic idea and its world wide-expression in diverse forms;* 2) *the industrial-technological transformation which has also altered conditions of life and landscape everywhere, even where modern industry* *has not established itself;* and 3) *the demographic shifts arising from the triumphs of modern medicine, transportation technology and changes in family relationships.*

As before, case studies of particular times and places are called for to explore these themes with satisfactory precision. Choices may vary as long as the overarching themes and the interplay between local particularities and more general patterns of twentieth century experience are kept clearly in view.

Likewise, study of United States history and geography can be fitted into the global picture by treating it separately within a specified number of weeks; but the principle of segregation is clearly deficient in our present globally interactive age. Teaching about World Wars I and II or the Cold War, Viet Nam and the petroleum shock of the 1970s by concentrating attention only on what happened within the borders of the United States, for instance, loses sight of the worldwide implications of such events. Therefore, an effort to put our national experience in its world setting is imperative.

Students selecting community service should spend significant amounts of time as volunteers with community agencies, but they should also...connect their experience with questions of public policy.

GRADE 12

Schools should require two semester-length courses at grade twelve. The final year in high school is the last opportunity teachers have to arouse youthful idealism, teach issues requiring students to exercise citizenship skills in a responsible manner and impress students with their civic duty to use the appropriate modes of inquiry to make reasoned judgments on all important public questions.

1. Government/Economics

Government and economics may be taught separately or in combination.

American Government

At this level of schooling, an American government course should examine in a more sophisticated manner the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Constitution, the Bill of Rights and the Federalist Papers and convey a good grasp of constitutional principles and the tensions between liberty and order, market capitalism and political equality. This course should also treat competing political ideologies and political institutions and processes at local, state and national levels of government. The gap between political theories and political behavior should be examined. Students should be encouraged to distinguish statements expressing descriptive beliefs, explanatory beliefs, predictive beliefs and normative beliefs. Students should be expected to read newspapers and political speeches with a critical eye and to evaluate political debates, editorials, news commentary and talk show analyses as well as political films. Students should be taught about the realities and paradoxes of American elections and the role of public opinion in American politics.

Economics

The theme of the economics course ought to be how markets for services and products have operated through time and across space to solve conflicts regarding what should be produced, how it should be produced and who should receive what is produced. This requires attention to the incentives to which people have responded as consumers, producers and workers at different times and different places, and to the consequences for communities and for the nation of decisions these groups have made, individually and collectively, in response to those incentives. When incentives change, people change their decisions in predictable ways, choosing the alternative which seems best to them because it involves the least cost and the greatest benefit. Students need to understand that all decisions, current or past, involve many hidden costs, requiring that people assess the most important of the hidden costs—opportunities they lose when they make one decision rather than another.

Students should understand what markets are and how they work. They need to know how governments interact with markets, altering the incentives and the voluntary exchanges which occur in order to achieve goals that markets address inadequately, such as reduced pollution or national defense. In addition, students should understand the potential inherent in government to harm as well as to enhance economic activity.

Students need to understand that all decisions, current and past, involve many hidden costs, requiring that people assess the most important of the hidden costs—opportunities they lose when they make one decision rather than another.

Combined Government and Economics

Another challenging approach and intellectually more pleasing means of achieving what has been outlined in the paragraphs above would be a course that examines both political theory and economic theory and then moves on to an examination of political and economic behavior—all in a comparative context. Plainly, the American political and economic systems can best be understood comparatively. Our system is but one political and economic system and one way of performing governance and the allocation of goods and services. Americans nowadays are participants in a global or international system as well as citizens of their own national and state communities. Students need to know the roots of our political and economic practices, the views of the framers, the theories of representative and participatory government, the theories of capitalism and socialism and the way our decision-making practices differ from alternative systems found elsewhere around the globe.

A course that integrates political and economic thought would do much to indicate the increasingly intertwined character of political and economic policy making. Study of multinational organizations such as the United Nations, the Organization of American States, NATO, the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, would help students to see those interrelationships. A course that places the United States in a comparative framework would also suggest commonalities and dissimilarities with other nations and in the process would demonstrate the distinctiveness of American behavior and the increasingly interdependent nature of our economic and political transactions.

To be sure, texts that combine these two disciplines and put them into global context are virtually nonexistent. Yet creative and inventive teachers may be able to teach this course by using selective materials and in team-teaching arrangements. Students are ready for more demanding and sophisticated approaches to these subjects.

2. Other Twelfth Grade Course Options

Students should have the opportunity to choose other courses: 1) courses in anthropology, sociology, psychology (for descriptions of these fields see Part III below); 2) a well-conceived multidisciplinary study of contemporary or recurrent issues, which is always hard to design but which has been well done in many schools over the years; or 3) a supervised experience in community service. Those students selecting community service should spend significant amounts of time as volunteers with community agencies, but they should also be scheduled into seminar meetings at which they connect their experience with questions of public policy. For example, students who volunteer to work in nursing homes should also be examining policy issues related to gerontology and public health.

* * *

If teachers and administrators succeed in implementing the recommendations we have made, students will emerge into the twenty-first century prepared to live well and wisely in a changing world, better able to play their part as citizens of our country, as members of their local community and as sharers in the human adventure on earth. This is the imperative end of education in the social studies: democratic citizenship deserves no less. It can only be attained if those studies are coherent, continuous and rigorous, starting from kindergarten.

PART II: RESEARCH AND THE RECOMMENDED CURRICULUM

THE RESEARCH BASE FOR CURRICULUM CHOICE*

No amount of research can directly justify a particular set of curriculum recommendations. Research on how children and adolescents think, learn and behave is often conducted in settings and under circumstances that are far removed from the actual classroom; tends to deal with one or a few persons at a time; and, even sustained over many years, deals only with a few variables. Furthermore, what students *can* learn is in principle almost infinite. Curriculum choices depend as much on what students ought to learn, and when and how—in the judgment of professional educators and the society as a whole—than on what is possible. All that research can do is to suggest what is relatively more feasible, and some of the factors, sometimes overlooked in the educational process, that should be taken into account.

...the notion that students cannot deal with social studies abstractions until grade 4 is clearly discredited.

In its deliberations on the suggested curriculum for the social studies, the National Commission in no case arrived at a recommendation solely on the basis of 'what research shows.' However, we have kept in mind some well-established general findings from developmental and cognitive research over recent decades.

First, students at all ages know more about the world than is readily apparent. Much of that knowledge represents out-of-school learning. That is clear in aspects of language behavior, conceptions of political activity, understanding of social relationships and grasp of the cultural symbols of the society. More important, perhaps, quite young students have rudimentary concepts of some of the critical ideas in social studies: spatial and temporal ordering, authority and power, the nature of groups, cultural differences, scarcity and many others. These concepts are to a large extent spontaneously generated: that is, they are inferences arrived at by children's own observations and thinking. They are concepts, mental 'schemata,' that students bring to the learning situation. They may be shadowy and ill-formed, but they are the basis for learning. Instruction can capitalize on the conceptual building blocks that children possess. In particular, the notion that students cannot deal with social studies abstractions until grade 4 is clearly discredited. These comments will seem like truisms to experienced teachers, but much of the supposed 'boringness' of social studies, especially in the earlier grades, stems from the use of methods and lesson plans that do not permit teachers to act on this knowledge.

Second, different students know somewhat different things, reflecting temperamental and cultural differences among children and local and regional variation. To some degree education acts to override such differences, to provide a common experience and frame of reference. But education also must take advantage of such differences, since they are great resources: the knowledge held and obtained by students taken together is far beyond that which belongs to any single learner or set of learners. Thus any curriculum must be flexible, adaptable to many situations and subject to modification in a particular milieu. This too is not news to teachers.

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* This discussion is based on a critical review of the literature conducted by David Jenness, Scholar in Residence.

Third, students 'know' many things that are erroneous or so misleading that they impede further learning. Not all teachers understand this. Many strong—but wrong—inferences that students, indeed adults, make from experience are never tested in such a way as to be definitively disproved. In physics and mathematics education, such faulty concepts have been demonstrated clearly. In social studies, young students may 'understand' the cabinet and departmental structure of the executive branch of the federal government and the existence of local, state and national levels and still believe that the President runs the country by telephoning instructions to those lower in the chain. They may understand that money is the medium of a transaction at a store, but not that money circulates thereafter. Even high school students may fail to grasp that in history an event may follow other events without being 'caused' by them. If the preconceptions that students bring to a learning situation are not actively probed for, the teacher may well blame a student's error on her own faulty presentation of the material or an inadequate lesson plan rather than recognizing that the student is operating from unworkable assumptions. Such erroneous inferences are highly resistant to change unless they are confronted directly, because the student himself is unaware of them. 'Correct' verbal understanding, learned through instruction, can coexist with deeply ingrained private misconceptions. Students may use formal knowledge to solve classroom problems, while using quite different heuristics in the world outside. While this is inevitable, in some cases the failure of formal education to recognize the difference causes students, understandably, to denigrate 'book-learning.' Misconceptions about social phenomena may be easier to correct than misconceptions about the natural world simply because are relatively less perceptually based, more easily modified through language and shared experience.

If the preconceptions...are not actively probed for, the teacher may well blame a student's error on her own faulty presentation...rather than recognizing that the student is operating from unworkable assumptions.

Fourth, in social studies especially, students learn to some extent vicariously and cooperatively. That is, some of the essential things to learn—that different people have different experiences and perspectives, that individuals act in new ways as members of groups, that others influence us at a distance through social structures and social arrangements, that such differences can ultimately be subsumed within the likenesses and commonalities that make us human—are directly experienced by students in the learning situation as they watch others learning and as all parties participate in defining (or refining) the questions and arriving at the answer. It is this process that helps to correct implicit misperceptions, referred to above. This does not mean that individual students do not actively receive, ponder and process 'information', but it does mean that 'discovery', in the social studies, is not entirely a private or personal matter. Moreover, in social studies, social learning is not only the object of study but the medium of study and learning. For example, schools cannot decide to avoid the study of social attitudes, cooperative and competitive behavior, tolerance and prejudice. Students bring relevant attitudes and conceptions with them. Research shows that without explicit instructional attention to such aspects of social behavior, students fail to see the gap between the principles they learn and the behavior they evince, and continue to believe that what applies to them and what is true of 'out there' exist in different realms.

Taken together, all of these generalizations suggest that, especially in the earlier grades, social studies instruction needs to take place very much 'in public.' That is, elicitation of what students do know, and what erroneous ideas they hold, is needed. To some degree, overt taking-account of the capacities and needs of the particular students is essential if students are to be truly engaged in the teaching-learning process. This by no means amounts to teaching for 'relevance' or letting the students set the agenda; it does mean the teacher must listen as well as talk, must guide discussion and provide means for students to share and compare their knowledge and thinking. As many have argued, rote learning, lockstep recitation, passive absorption of information are deadly—and pointless—in social studies.

The combination of particular and generic learning is crucial if children are to understand and respect the variety they cannot fail to observe...

In relating these well-established general principles to the Commission's suggested curriculum, we make the following observations. Social studies in grades K through 3 should be flexible and informal, but dense. Between the ages of about 6 and 9 children form concepts about social relationships and the way the world works that have lifelong salience to them. We collapse several years of an 'expanding environments' pattern into two or three, remembering the principle of teaching back and forth from what is familiar to what is new, but respecting also that children should not be taught the obvious. Further, the key phrase is "back and forth" from the familiar to the new, and from the new to the familiar. Today's children know that there is a far larger and more various world than their own neighborhood and community. They are intensely curious about all kinds of families and lives and places. In these grades, a fundamentally comparative approach of global scope is needed to help students understand that their own experience is parallel to that of other people in different places and in different times.

This not only sets the stage for a wider understanding of social phenomena, but helps students to sharpen and to clarify their own positions in the world. The combination of particular and generic learning is crucial if children are to understand and respect the variety they cannot fail to observe and realize that their own experience, while special, is not different in kind from that of others. As cognitive social psychologists have shown, here is the beginning of categorization and conceptualization, the understanding of social perspective and the framing—by a certain distancing through comparison—of students' own implicit, egocentric knowledge of their immediate milieu. It is also the beginning of the factual 'knowledge base' without which further learning cannot take place.

Grades 2 and 3, in our recommended sequence, have a two-sided character. On the one hand, a broad attention to societies extends the basically comparative approach, of similarities and differences, of the earlier grades, and is thus the basis for broad conceptualization of human groups and experience. On the other hand, the attention paid to the role of key figures, heroes, holidays and cultural symbols—in a wide selection of societies broadly dispersed in time and space—sets the stage for the first sweep, in grade 4, of U.S. history. Unlike some cur-

Since this first version of national history is broad-ranging and narrative in style, we strongly recommend...that it be closely integrated with literature, the oral tradition and the arts.

ricular schemes, this grade 4 course should, we recommend, cover the entire range of the national history in a captivating narrative approach, strongly aimed toward students' identification with signal figures and an appreciation of the symbolic, as well as historical, importance of key events. We recommend an earlier-than-normal first approach to national history precisely because students have, by grade 4, come to understand that there is more than one national history in the world; theirs, however, is the most important for them to know in detail. As research in political socialization indicates, it is crucial that the central concepts of democracy — personal freedom, equality, the participation of the governed in government — be communicated as early as possible, at an age when children are forming lifelong emotional and attitudinal dispositions. Since this first version of national history is broad-ranging and narrative in style, we strongly recommend that social studies instruction be closely integrated with literature, the oral tradition and the arts. Considerable emphasis should be placed on the full multicultural diversity of the American experience.

Both a rich selective world history and a human geography suitable for social studies center on the capacious concept of cultures extending beyond national or natural borders and beyond individual lifetimes.

Having been exposed both to a generic survey of social groupings and institutions, largely though not exclusively contemporaneous, and to their own national history, institutions and present cultural meaning, students proceed to a two-year introduction to world history and geography, including both physical and human elements. Again, the National Commission recommends the study of both subjects earlier than is the case in other suggested curricula. Prior exposure to both the generic and the particular in social organization, and to both contemporary and historical approaches, now permits meaningful study of selected aspects of world history across the entire sweep of human experience. Similarly, research has clearly indicated that rather abstract basic concepts in geography can be comprehended by most children at this age. The world history/geography interrelationship illuminates the largest processes of the world in tandem, which is particularly attractive to children of the modern world, now less constrained by limitations of communications to parochial views. A rich exposure, within these two years, to the rise and fall of civilizations, to geomorphological, geopolitical and environmental factors, to historical processes spanning centuries or continents, to revolutionary technological change, to religious and cultural trends that surface, recede and reappear—these emphases should help insure that, while the history of selected nations and peoples and the geography of selected regions or locations are not ignored, indeed are sampled in considerable detail, students do not perceive history as simply the sum of national or era-bound events, or geography as the agglomeration of local features and processes. What is sought in these two years is the ability of students to make mid-level generalizations: for example, that civilizations come and go, but in different patterns and for various reasons; or that geography affects human affairs, but in ways constrained by history and culture. No other approach, we believe, will set the stage for the systematic global knowledge needed today.

It is important to offer world study before the usual grade 7 or 9 placement. Students' basic attitudes toward other peoples and cultures are formed earlier than this. We acknowledge that the specific methodologies involved in planning what amounts to an interrelated two-year sequence will need experimentation and development. We note, however, that the history-geography matrix has proved a powerful approach in the past, and that the better texts in both world history and in geography invariably are organized toward this end. Thus it is less important to specify a two-year syllabus in detail than to keep the over-all design in mind. Cognitive research demonstrates that a complex subject matter is most thoroughly understood when it can be 'mapped' into more than one frame of reference, when—to use current research metaphors—it can be retrieved from more than one memory store. Both a rich selective world history and a human geography suitable for social studies center on the capacious concept of cultures extending beyond national or natural borders and beyond individual human lifetimes. Teachers need only select and correlate judiciously to cover much valuable ground effectively.

Our recommendation for grades 7 and 8 also involves a two-year sequence, but in this case with no special attempt at cross-year integration. We believe that local history—which can shade into regional and personal history—cannot be taught at any depth in its usual placement at grade 4. *After* students have had one year of U.S. history and a year of world history (and of course after the early-grades exposure to general social structural principles), then they are in a position to understand to what degree 'local' history is distinct from, and to what degree it is part of, larger processes. The U.S. history we recommend for the following year may be organized chronologically, but is also analytical in emphasis, with specific strands, tendencies and factors brought to prominence.

We do not believe that social studies can be either predominantly synthetic or predominantly disciplinary...

Both local history and grade 8 U.S. history should include substantial attention to economic and sociological concepts, together with the more usual political and cultural material. These two years will provide—together with the grounding in American citizenship from grade 4—a realistic civic understanding, if organized and taught in this approach. Students at this age are idealistic and eager to understand how their society and world can be improved. Within a year or two, an early-adolescent privatism takes over. 'Civics' at grade 9 (a familiar element in past social studies) disconnected from history has not proved effective; neither, on the other hand, has civic understanding taught entirely through political history, especially when the major emphasis has been limited to the Constitutional (or the near-present) period.

Probably the most unusual of the Commission's recommendations is for the three-year sequence of integrated world and U.S. history. The basic rationale for this recommendation is an intellectual one, having little to do with developmental and cognitive considerations. By these ages, students can master any subject matter if it is well organized. Good textbooks exist in both 'world' and 'American' history that make the connections apparent. What teachers must do, therefore, is to select rigorously (for even three years is not sufficient), highlight and interpret the material, challenge students to think deeply and synthesize widely—and all the other miraculous but crucial functions that teachers perform.

Our recommendation for the 12th year does not depart markedly from current practice. We stress the desirability of a close integration between the disciplinary study of political science and that of economics. In recommending that schools also provide a multidisciplinary course, we do not prefer one or another principle of organization (thematic, problem-oriented, etc.) but do insist that the planned correlation of knowledge across disciplinary lines is essential. A few weeks spent on one 'field' followed by a few weeks on another, and then another, does not make a multidisciplinary course and does not produce breadth of understanding.

In general, the curriculum we recommend tries to alternate or balance breadth and depth. We do not believe that social studies can be either predominantly synthetic or predominantly disciplinary, nor do we believe that students' minds proceed from the narrow to the broad, or from universal to particular concepts, or that there must be a choice between facts and judgment, knowing-about and knowing-that. Roughly speaking, in our scheme grades K through 2/3 emphasize breadth and elements of universal experience; 2/3 and 4 emphasize the particulars of American experience; 5 and 6 again emphasize generic breadth; and 7 and 8 historical depth. Grades 9 through 11 seek both equally. Most important of all, however, we urge that at every grade level both approaches in these complements be respected.

The National Commission hopes that its own recommendations are not taken as a final or complete sketch of curriculum 'reform' which all schools and teachers must achieve. We hope that most will set out on the suggested path. There is no single end goal that we prescribe.

PART III: PERSPECTIVES OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATIONS

The essays in this section were prepared by representatives of the several professional associations holding membership in the Social Science Associations Task Force for Pre-Collegiate Education.

Each organization has its own long-term commitment to effective teaching of the discipline it represents, but each has expressed support for the overall goals of the National Commission.

Information about the work of each group may be obtained directly. See the appendix for a list of addresses.

ANTHROPOLOGY

by

Jane J. White*

The central goal of anthropologists is to explain why groups of people are different from each other: to explain why they have different physical characteristics, speak different languages, use different technologies, and why they think, believe and act so differently. Rejecting the deficit theory that describes one group as inferior or inadequate when compared to another, anthropologists try to explain each group's way of life in terms of their own perspectives.

Anthropologists study specific groups of people throughout time and space. Curious about how much of human behavior is socially learned and how much is shaped by our biological nature, anthropologists investigate the physical and social evolution of primates and humans. Anthropologists trace how human societies have changed, from the earliest preliterate societies to early civilizations and up through the advent of the telemicroelectronic revolution. Anthropologists study hunters and gatherers, island villagers, peasants, nomads, and diverse groups living in modern cities and industrialized nations. As anthropologists compare the differences that have arisen among different groups of people as they have adapted over time to different physical and social environments, anthropologists try to understand what is common about humanity. Thus, anthropology is the study of what Clyde Kluckholn called "common humanity and diverse cultures."

Anthropologists develop their concepts and generalizations inductively. They systematically gather many different types of data about the mundane details of everyday life. For example, a painstaking study of stone tools and plant and animal remains enables archeologists to identify a site as belonging to early farmers because pollen analysis gives evidence of domesticated plants and layers of charcoal indicated slash and burn agriculture. Clifford Geertz argues that it is through local knowledge, elaborated findings gathered during a relatively long residence at a site, that big ideas are given meaning. He concludes that "The aim is to draw large conclusions from small, but very densely textured facts; to support broad assertions... by engaging them with complex specifics."*

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* White is Co-Chair of the American Anthropological Association's Task Force on Teaching Anthropology in the Schools. She is Associate Professor of Education, University of Maryland, Baltimore County.

Subdisciplines of Anthropology

There are four main branches of anthropology. **Physical anthropology** is the study of physical characteristics and social behavior of humans past and present. Some physical anthropologists search for fossil remains to understand how humans evolved. Other physical anthropologists observe how primates live in their natural habitats; their group size, feeding habits, care of infants and social organization are studied as strategies for adaptation within particular ecological niches. Physical anthropologists also study physical differences among human beings including blood types, skin colors, skeletal differences, hereditary diseases and the effects of nutrition.

Archeology is the study of the material remains of cultures. Archeologists can infer a great deal about a way of life from the often very meager clues that survive: fishbones reveal dietary habits, postholes or hearths yield clues to household size and settlement patterns, differences in jewelry help to establish a hierarchical social structure. Central to the study of archeology are the interrelationships between technological development and economic, social and ideational factors. For example, archeologists repeatedly find evidence of agriculture linked with evidence of population increases. In different areas of the world archeologists find clusters of dense population linked with a differential system of labor, centralized power, social stratification, bureaucracy, literacy and monumental architecture as characterizations of early civilizations.

Anthropological linguistics is the study of how groups of people use language. Early linguists first noted that societies have an elaborate vocabulary for talking about aspects of life that are important in their culture: Eskimos have many words to indicate differences in types of snow; the Balinese have an intricate system of forms of address because of their complex social class system. When linguists study formal and informal speech, the story telling, insults and jokes in a culture, they study both the forms of the language and what is important and meaningful to the people. Today sociolinguists study how language is used in schools, in courtrooms and between doctors and patients.

Cultural anthropology is the description of different groups' ways of life. Ethnographers learn the language of the group and record daily patterns of interaction. They chart kinship, interview key informants, collect life histories, study written documents and record stories and songs so that they can describe the participants' understanding of what is happening.

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* Clifford Geertz, *The Interpretation of Cultures* (New York: Basic Books, 1973): 21-28.

Today there are many approaches, subfields and areas of study in anthropology. Within the American Anthropological Association there are more than twenty professional units. These include area studies such as the Society for the Anthropology of Europe and the Society for Latin American Anthropology as well as societies for nutritional, medical, urban, political and applied anthropology.

Key Anthropological Concepts to Use in Social Studies

While anthropologists differ in their definitions, the concept of culture is central to the study of anthropology. Culture is the way of life developed over time by a specific group as they have adapted to their natural and social environment. It is the system by which people structure their experiences and make meaning out of life around them. For example, culture includes unspoken rules on how to use space (how close to stand to another person), how to use time, what work is, what play is and how to act male or female. Like language, culture is learned at an early age from the members of the group. It is complex, and it is cumulative.

A society or community is a group of people that identify themselves and are identified by others as constituting a distinguishable group. The members of a society make up a field of communication and interaction. They share a system of basic values and attitudes for judgment about what is appropriate, moral and excellent and what is not. Cultural boundaries are actively drawn and maintained by members of a society. Through overt signs such as dress, hairstyle, or material possessions, group members can be identified quickly even at a distance.

The concept of culture can be used to study groups of various sizes and degrees of permanency. Even a family can be seen to have a culture of its own: a family has roots, traditions, a kinship system and appropriate ways of interacting. A case can be made that groups who interact on a daily basis, such as a classroom, policemen or junkies, have their own cultures.

There are ethnic groups that perceive themselves as sharing a distinct way of life within the confines of a larger society. Within the U.S., for example, there are African Americans, Chinese Americans, Hispanics and Native Americans. At an even more inclusive level of organization, there are political, racial and religious groups that have distinctive ways of life such as the Arabs, the Yoruba and the Australian Aborigines.

Anthropology in Education

What use is anthropology in social studies education? Many elementary and secondary social studies teachers teach concepts and processes informed by anthropology throughout the curricula.

In the primary grades teachers and students can use the concepts and processes of anthropology to study:

—diverse families within their community as well as around the world;

—minority and ethnic groups within communities and cities.

In intermediate grades teachers and students can study:

—cultural contact when the European explorers first encountered African and Native American societies;

—cultural contact and adaptation as groups of people migrated in search of freedom and a better life.

In the middle school teachers and students can study:

— how technological changes affect how groups of people live. What happened as the United States moved from being a nation of farmers to being an urban and industrial nation? What is happening now in the postindustrial shift to a high technological global system of communications?

In the senior high teachers and students can study:

— the spread of agriculture, the rise of major civilizations and the spread of the major religions;

— major global problems such as the migration of rural peasants into urban slums and the deforestation that is occurring due to population pressures.

Ellison argues that the study of anthropology helps illuminate the concerns of today's young people:

> One value of this material is that it is concerned with the most basic human relationships and institutions; parent-child relationships, the family, marriage, death, growing up, man and the unknown, man and the physical environment, man's relationship to other men. A cross-cultural study of societies which have developed outside the orbit of Western civilization enables the students to see how differently

> various societies have structured these relationships, and, at the same time, to observe the recurrent individual and social needs which must be met.*

Anthropology is the study of the other: it is only by comparing ourselves with the other that we learn about ourselves. Students' notions of what the ideal male is like, for example, are put into a different framework after comparing the "aggressive, boasting, highly status-aware Haida chief with the passive, self-abnegating, highly ritual-aware Hopi chief or the physically agile, individualistic Crow chief with his mind filled with martial exploits."

In addition to helping students frame and reflect on their personal knowledge, anthropology has a wealth of "big ideas"— culture, evolution, adaptation, cultural contact, technological change, to mention but a few, that can help students organize data and perceive patterns as they study American history and world cultures. Students' use of the processes of anthropology—analyzing artifacts, original documents, art and narratives, and accounts of everyday lives—will also add depth, intensity and variety to their work in the social studies.

A final caveat must be noted, however. The underlying perspectives and assumptions of anthropology must be used along with its concepts and processes. All too often, well-intentioned teachers will teach about "our neighbors across the border" by having their class, for example, break a piñata or cook a Greek dish. They may not realize that these events are the tips of cultural iceberg, superficial traits that are easily broken off and transferred because they are fun and involve active hands-on participation. However, these isolated experiences do not really capture the more central values of how the Mexicans or Greeks make meaning out of their own culture. Breaking a piñata may leave tudents with the benevolent but misguided assumption that Mexicans, for example, are people to the south who are just like us except that they celebrate holidays a little differently.

In 1978 the Council on Anthropology and Education passed a resolution stating that:

> Culture is more than the heritage of a people through dance, food, holidays and history. Culture is more than a component of bilingual education programs. It is a dynamic, creative and continuous process which includes behaviors, values and substance shared by people that guides them in their struggle for survival and gives meaning to their lives. As a vital process it needs to be understood by more people in the United States, a multiple society which has many interacting cultural groups.

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* Jack Ellison, "Anthropology Brings Human Nature into the Classroom," *Social Education, 24* (1960): 327-328.

Teachers need to use their ingenuity to move beyond the more readily available "touristy" approach to different cultures. Frequent use of anthropological case studies will help communicate to students a complex, lively picture of a whole way of live. It is a challenge to help students confront in intellectually honest ways the sometimes threatening concept of cultural differences. If the challenge is met, then students will have moved one step closer toward becoming true world citizens.

ECONOMICS

by

W. Lee Hansen*

The impact of economics on the lives of people is pervasive. Economic forces inform decisions that change the course of history, contribute to the development of different forms of government, shape societies and the roles of their members and lead to the discovery of new frontiers. Yet, many students continue to be ignorant of the power of economic forces and of economics.

As we enter the twenty-first century, economic forces raise new questions. Societies face decisions about how best to insure economic prosperity, operate within a global economy and restructure their economies as competitive pressures intensify. Citizens must possess an understanding of economics to become effective decision-makers and responsible participants, not only in democratic societies like our own but elsewhere around the world as well.

To accomplish these goals, several tasks loom ahead. Economics must be infused into the entire K-12 social studies curriculum, but particularly in the elementary and middle school grades. Economics must also be offered as a separate course during the senior year of high school. Equally important, economics must be well taught, it must be made interesting, and its usefulness needs to be developed in the minds of students.

Under such conditions substantial learning can occur. Students need to understand why the economy operates as it does rather than amass endless facts about the economy. Students need to understand the complex interrelationships among economic, political and historical forces in a world of change. They need to understand the linkages between the economic and political forces that are reshaping the world economy. They need to gain a more complete awareness of the complexity of decision-making.

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* Hansen is Professor of Economics, University of Wisconsin, Madison, and immediate past-chair of the Education Committee of the American Economic Association, He is co-author of *A Framework for Teaching the Basic Concepts*, New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1984.

What it takes is to gain some mastery in economics--the concepts, skills and modes of analysis that are pursued in the discipline. The following sections describe the basic economic concepts, skills and areas of analysis that should be contained within the study of economics.

Objectives

The objective of economic education is to teach both economic analysis and economic policy.

> Economics is the study of how the goods and services we want get produced, and how they are distributed among us. This part we call economic analysis. Economics is also the study of how we can make the system of production and distribution work better. This part we call economic policy. Economic analysis is the necessary foundation for sound economic policy.

The essence of economic understanding lies in being able to make sense out of the array of economic facts, events, observations and issues that unfold, and in being able to make effective decision about economic issues.

The key elements of that understanding are:

Mastery of the basic concepts of economics. Like all other disciplines, economics has its own tools of analysis and a "language," and students should know these as well.

An appreciation of how the principal concepts of economics relate to each other. Such an appreciation enables students to deal with the complex "real world" economic problems they will face as adults.

Comprehension of the structure of the economy. This comprehension includes a knowledge of how the various components and sectors of the economy interact.

Knowledge about major economic concerns, both public and personal. Such knowledge and some understanding of how public and personal economic issues relate to each other provides a basis for grasping how individual actions shape and are shaped by economic forces.

Exercise of a reasoned approach to economic decisions. Economic decisions can be reached more effectively if an objective, orderly and reasoned approach replaces emotional, unreasoned judgements.

Key Concepts and Skills

The list of concepts below focuses on the most basic among the many concepts in economics. Although all the concepts listed are basic to the attainment of economic understanding, they cannot all be treated alike in the K-12 curriculum. Some are easier to learn because teachers can be find a greater variety of concrete examples to illustrate them. Some concepts are easier to learn because their definitions do not require prior knowledge of other concepts. Consequently, many of these concepts can be taught with varying complexity early as well as late in the curriculum. The reverse is also true. Certain concepts are more difficult and therefore cannot be taught in all their complexity at all grade levels. Some are relatively difficult to learn because they involve grasping relationships among several lower-level concepts.

Fundamental Economic Concepts

- Scarcity
- Opportunity Cost and Trade-Offs
- Productivity
- Economic Systems
- Economic Institutions and Incentives
- Exchange, Money, and Interdependance

Microeconomic Concepts: The Working of Markets

- Markets and Prices
- Supply and Demand
- Competition and Market Structure
- Income Distribution
- Market Failures
- The Role of Government

Macroeconomic Concepts: The National Economy

- Gross National Product
- Aggregate Supply
- Unemployment
- Inflation and Deflation
- Monetary Policy: The Federal Reserve and the Money Supply
- Fiscal Policy: Government Taxing and Spending

International Economic Concepts

Why National Trade: Absolute and Comparative Advantage and Barriers to Trade
Balance of Payments and Exchange Rates
International Aspects of Growth and Stability

In addition, economics teaches students the "basic" skills necessary to understand and utilize the following:

Tables
Charts and Graphs
Ratios and Percentages
Index Numbers
Real vs. Nominal Values
Averages and Distributions Around the Average

Evaluating Economic Performance and Policies

A key element in economic understanding is the ability to make effective decisions about economic issues. Economic decisions, however, are not made in a vacuum. Rather they are made in light of goals that often differ from one society to another as well as among groups and among individuals within these societies.

The broad economic goals that dominate are economic freedom, economic efficiency, economic equity, economic security, economic stability (full employment and the absence of inflation) and economic growth. These goals and the importance attached to each of them give structure to individual and societal decision-making. These goals provide targets and a sense of direction in formulating the means of reaching these targets.

These goals can also be thought of as criteria for evaluating the performance of the economic system (or parts of the system) and for examining the usefulness of new as well as existing programs. Some goals, such as freedom or equity, are difficult to present in quantitative form. Others, such as full employment or price stability, can be articulated as numerical targets.

These broad economic goals are not immutable. Students need to understand that economic conditions change, and as social patterns shift goals are constantly being rethought and sometimes redefined. Not only do broad economic goals change, but the relative importance attached to these goals also shifts from time to time. When inflation is rampant, for example, concern about unemployment tends to decline; when equity considerations become uppermost in people's minds, concern about economic efficiency lessens; when environmental concerns increase, the emphasis on economic growth tends to diminish.

The idea of self-interest differs from the goals discussed above. Self-interest reflects the concern of individuals for their own well-being and personal values, whereas the other goals reflect broader social concerns. The achievement of economic goals often comes at the expense of particular individuals or groups. The individuals or groups adversely affected may well oppose steps to achieve the goals. This means that the positions people ultimately take on economic issues will be affected by their own self-interest as well as by the weight they put on broad economic goals. It is important to try to separate these two types of goals in order to understand why people ultimately reach the decisions they do on economic issues.

Any particular economic goal must be viewed as one of several goals individuals and societies try to reach, and trade-offs are inherent in pursuing multiple goals. Economic analysis seeks to inform people about what they must give up with respect to one goal as they consider the gains from attaining another. Such analysis helps people make more intelligent decisions by clarifying the nature of the trade-offs among various goals.

Finally, developing the knowledge and skill required to prepare young people to apply their understanding to specific economic issues requires not only inspired teaching but also constant practice. Such practice will sharpen the ability of students to apply what they have learned to the "real" world.

Conclusion

Economic understanding needs to be integrated throughout the social studies so the students come to realize that the most decisions have economic consequences. As many resources become more scarce, as the economic environment changes, and as the economic impact of decisions become more immediate, citizens must know how to utilize economic analysis to face the complex problems they will continue to encounter.

GEOGRAPHY

by

Christopher Salter*

One of the basic necessities of education is having knowledge of the world around you. From an early age, a person is constantly seeking information about place. What place is this? How do I get from here to the place I must go? Why does that person look so different? Where is she from? Why does this place feel so strange? so wonderful? so mysterious? All of these very human sensations come from our innate curiosity about geography.

In looking at the broad scope of social studies concerns, we can see how history serves as the context for the flow of events that have shaped our past and now shape our present. Geography, in most cases, has set the stage for the battle, the treaty, the invention, the migration or whatever event is being studied. Just as understanding the present requires a grasp of what happened in the past, comprehending history demands that you have a sense of the setting of the event. It is this pairing of history and geography that provides a comprehensive understanding of what forces have led society to this point, this place and this choice.

Social studies weaves these influences of geography and history together to help us interpret the scenes that face the peoples of today, and those that have faced all peoples of the past. This curriculum will provide guidelines for the effective teaching of social studies in the years to come. It brings with it educational opportunities for richly integrated strands of learning at all levels. Geographers and geography stand ready to play a creative role in such education.

One of the most essential features of geographic education is the capacity to make sense of the landscapes of life. Whether in the very early grades or for an active citizen attempting to play a role in the smooth running of a democratic society, there is a continual need to be able to see and evaluate what humankind has done in earlier efforts to craft a useful and productive world. The capacity to make such judgments is related to geographic inquiry.

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Critical to effective geographic inquiry — at all levels of social studies education — is a simple quartet of cognitive skills that link geography and social studies. These four skills will allow the students to better understand the world around him or her, and will couple social studies to the continual process of the student's trying to determine just where he or she is in the world. Understanding of this quartet is the first essential step toward making geography a role player in productive educational practices.

Observation. For the student at any level, education must begin with "What do you see here?" What are the obvious, and then more subtle, elements that are in the scene, this photograph, out this window, or in this paragraph from the story? This call to note and articulate what one sees is basic geography, and it begins the process of understanding of what the student can observe.

Speculation. After observing the scene, the student needs to wonder why it looks this way. "What do you think has caused the landscape to take on this shape? What historical, what economic, what social forces have led this scene to have these elements?" In looking at a neighborhood through slides, in looking at an agricultural pattern in a textbook, in observing the ethnic variety in a street scene in a video, the student needs to hone his or her capacities to speculate on why such a pattern exists. This is not mere guessing, but rather deduction from the elements that initial observation has brought to the student's consciousness.

Analysis. In the third of these four skills, the student needs to put his or her speculations to the test by doing some library research, perhaps by interviewing someone, by studying some earlier photographs. "Has the city always looked this way? Has corn always been the major crop in this region? Was this small town ever more lively than it appears now?" In this skill, the student is building on the first two processes by learning how to use social studies resources for analysis. The development of analytic skills in this context will have benefit for all aspects of the student's education.

Evaluation. Finally, the conclusion of this geographic process of trying to make sense of a given landscape through observation, speculation and analysis is evaluation. "Has society been wise in its creation of this scene? Is this the most efficient and productive use of the land and environment? If so, why? If not, how could the use be made more suitable?" Skills in this realm will be significant as the students of today become the decision-makers of tomorrow since population densities and resource scarcities will force increasingly difficult geographic and land use decisions to be made. This fourth step—evaluation of a given scene—is essential education in preparation for this very significant social responsibility that will surround all the students educated with this new social studies curriculum.

Observation, followed by speculation, supported by analysis, and concluding with evaluation of a given geographic scene is a process that not only makes the world more understandable, but trains the student in making sense of the world around her or him. This is fundamental geography. It should be part of Social Studies for the 21st Century at all grade levels and within all educational contexts.

Geographers, in a further effort to make clear this link between geography and the unfolding of human development and history, have brought focus to five fundamental geographic themes. These themes broadly touch all of the elements of geography, and they provide an ample framework for student inquiry about the role that geography plays in human history. They also provide a useful starting point for critical thinking at all levels.

The themes are 1)Location, 2)Place, 3)Human-Environmental Interactions, 4)Movement and 5)Regions.

In grasping the essence of geography there are critical questions that must be answered by students at all levels. "What is the location of the area we are studying? Where is it on the map? How can I pinpoint its exact location? What are the physical and cultural characteristics of this place? What role do these two aspects of the environment play in the character of this locale?" These simple but vital questions about location and place are fundamental to any geographic inquiry; location and place are the first two of five fundamental themes in geography.

Skills in observation must be promoted so that a child can respond to "What is the nature of the world around me?" For the youngest child, this question might deal with the local environment of settings in stories. For the older student, the geographic concern might relate to environmental change, questions of land use, or pollution. In all cases, the need for skill in observation is fundamental not only to geography but to useful social studies education.

The sign of good social studies instruction is the development of critical thinking and skill in problem analysis. These essential processes are particularly vital in consideration of the final three fundamental themes in geography.

What have people done to modify this setting, this environment that we are studying? This process of human-environment interaction is one of the most basic of human drives. We want to have shelter, to have a secure and predictable food supply, to create identity, to make the landscape more productive, more beautiful. Every one of these societal desires stimulates environmental change. It is vital that our students understand this for we are having to pay higher costs for such landscape transformations every day. Social studies—with its variety of social science perspectives—is the perfect subject to introduce students to this geographic process of environmental interpretation, transformation and evaluation.

What role has human migration, cultural diffusion, or the transportation of resources and goods had in shaping the world? Our students are asked again and again to comprehend the tension in the city scene, the optimism of a group of migrants, the impact of a border treaty—and these are all themes that relate to the fundamental theme of movement in geography. Humankind has struggled to overcome distance since the first crossing of a river to obtain better plants and hunting. The process continues at an ever faster pace today with telecommunications making information transfer nearly instantaneous and relatively inexpensive. Goods, people and ideas are all moving from place to place to a degree that has never before been equalled. Social studies is a basic element in preparing students to deal with the pace and significance such commodity movements, human migrations and information flow.

Finally, the geographer works with the historian to look at the world in a unified way through the concept of "regions." A region is a realm that is defined by a common language, religion, political custom, economic activity or by similar physical and cultural elements. The region has a cultural and historical continuity to it that separates it from other adjacent or distinct regions. Such a perspective allows the geographer—and the historian, the economist and other social scientists—to study this limited portion of the earth rather than the whole. A region brings into focus common cultural traits that help explain the personality or image of a people or a place.

Since geography—as well as contemporary social studies— is so concerned with America's capacity to understand worlds beyond our home states and national borders, the regional concept plays a very useful role in helping us come to grips with cultural, economic and political differences with and within the United States.

And how are these basic questions to be answered, and fundamental themes in geography to be utilized in contemporary social studies? There are some elementary skills in geography that must be learned.

Most basic of all skills is familiarity with maps, charts and globes. These skills must be taught in the early grades so that by the time a student reaches fourth of fifth grade, there is already understanding of these significant geographic tools. This means that not only must teachers be given the time and opportunity for in-service experience that will bring them into effective familiarity with map and globe skills, but the classrooms in which they teach must be outfitted with up-to-date maps and globes that reflect the world in which they and their students live.

Maps that still represent Africa as a colonial outpost must be replaced by maps that have current country names. Just as the contemporary school must have science laboratories that reflect modern facilities in biological and physical sciences, so too must classrooms have the materials for the study of contemporary geography and money for at least some field studies, map work, current geography texts and modern atlases.

Students at the middle school level must be able to determine the nature and role of the physical and cultural geography of a given place and time. They must be acquiring knowledge of the globe and its major physical and political features. Through the basic studies of the five fundamental geographic themes, the student will be able to comprehend the ways in which humankind has made environmental decisions, set landscape change in motion and learned to regret or delight in the outcomes of this human process of environmental transformation.

The students of the 21st century will have a greater need to understand the importance of such geographic dynamics and learning than any other earlier generation. Not only is the pace of such alteration increasing in tempo, but the cost and ramification of such transformations become increasingly monumental each year. Citizen understanding and participation in such a process, therefore, grows more critical every day.

Senior high school students must have adequate training in geography to understand the variety of cultures, of perspectives and of resource and demographic bases in the world. The student must take the skills in observation and analysis that come from early geographic inquiry and be able to look at America's place in the broader world in the context of such issues. Geography in conjunction with history and social studies makes it possible to see why certain governments, certain places and certain times seem to radiate tension—or a sense of opportunity. The future of our society depends on the skills of our citizens and leaders to discern the nature and causes of such characteristics.

Geography can stand alone as a study of the physical processes that shape the environment. Study of those dynamics is basic to understanding the world. The location of resources, the political context in which such resources exist and economic costs associated with the extraction and transportation of these goods are all classic aspects of geographic inquiry.

Geography in alliance with history and other social sciences, however, serves social studies even better for it helps in the understanding of why things happened where and when they did; why people migrated; and why some regions have had such tumultuous histories. Social studies should give independent attention to basic skills in geography, but must also use geography as a strong partner in working to comprehend the world and its complex character.

Maps, globes, observation, environmental analysis and basic understanding of the five fundamental themes are all essential if students are to be in touch with the local and distant world. Social studies of the future must reflect the productive partnership between geography and history and the other social sciences, as well as promote basic student skills in observation, speculation, analysis and evaluation.

Geography and geographers are ready to play a useful and dynamic role in helping American education achieve these ambitious goals of Social Studies for the 21st Century. In so doing, our field can help students realize a critical understanding of the world around them, both now and in the past. Good geography leads to such knowledge. Such knowledge will lead to good education and better citizenship. Social Studies for the 21st Century will call for such levels of citizen education and citizen concern.

Solid instruction in geography is critical to such educational and societal goals.

AMERICAN HISTORY

by

Thomas C. Holt*

American history can be taught in an infinite variety of ways. It would be fallacious, therefore, to insist upon one particular selection and organization of topics and themes. It would also be counterproductive to good teaching, which requires a certain amount of spontaneity and creativity on the part of the teacher as well as the flexibility to respond to the "specialness" of each new classroom encounter. Like the individual students themselves, each class has its own personality and might require a different approach to learning. The vitality and effectiveness of a course depends on what both student and teacher bring to the classroom. It is their ability to adjust and respond to what they find in the classroom that wins teachers the status of professionals as opposed to assemblyline functionaries.

This caveat notwithstanding, it is possible to suggest some basic principles for constructing these diverse classroom experiences, some standards for judging among competing courses of study. The basic premise of the Curriculum Task Force report has been that the political demography of and cultural communication in the modern world require an education that prepares students for a lifetime of active and effective participation in the political, social and economic life of the nation. Knowledge of self and others is an important aspect of that preparation, and American history provides an indispensable context for gaining such knowledge. Given the ethnic and racial diversity of this nation, public school classrooms are themselves a kind of social studies text. For significant and increasing numbers of our young people, a history that ignores that "text" will not only be less credible, but less useful for life in the real world they must confront. Few students can be unaware of the obvious social inequities and conflicts in contemporary American life, since most of it continues to be exhibited in the schools themselves.

Whatever the particular features of an American history survey, therefore, it cannot emphasize unity to the exclusion of diversity in the American experience, its inspirational without its problematic moments, its achievements without its failures. Indeed, a thoughtfully designed program of study can use contemporary social conflict to illuminate the past, while the study of past conflict can give perspective on the present and the future. Most of all, students need to appreciate that American democracy is an unfinished innovation; that throughout the nation's history different groups left outside its fold —African Americans, women, and some immigrants to cite just a few—have invoked the unfulfilled promise of its democratic principles and ideals; that each generation, including their own, has an opportunity to further fulfillment of those values. Thus a critical scrutiny of the nation's past can strengthen, not weaken, commitment to its highest values and key institutions. It can also prepare future generations to assume a more realistic and helpful role in shaping world affairs.

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Given these principles and goals, what might an American history survey look like? How might one select from an almost infinite number of topics, themes and organizing schemes? First, one must recognize that the problem of unity and diversity is a theme as old as the nation itself and part of the ruminations, speculations and ponderings of some of the earliest national figures. From the protean image of a "new man" invoked by Hector St. John de Crèvecoeur in 1782 to the early 20th-century trope of "the melting pot," Americans have wondered aloud about how "one" would come from such a polyglot "many." The most consistent description of America has been that it is a land of immigrants (arguably, a characterization applicable to American Indians as well, since theirs was simply the first and earliest arrival). Its most universally recognized symbol has been the Statue of Liberty holding her light by "the golden door." It would seem to follow that a dominant theme in any survey of the nation's history, whatever else it involves, must be what has been called "the peopling of America." Who were the various groups that came? Why or how did they come? What did they bring with them? What did they find? How has their presence shaped the nation (economically, culturally, politically)? And how has the collective national experience shaped their own distinct group experience?

Answering these fairly simple questions can provide the basis for a history that is both inclusive and coherent. First because the recruitment and incorporation of each ethnic, racial or religious group (or non-incorporation in the case of Indians) has been shaped profoundly by the economic needs, opportunities and development of the nation. The migration of Europeans and the forced migration of African labor are only the most obvious episodes in the growth of the nation's economy. There is also the fact that westward expansion (the so-called Manifest Destiny) and western development is inexplicable without reference to dispossession of Mexicans and Indians from their lands and exploitation of Mexican and Asian labor.

Second, the peopling of the nation is an integral part of the story of the growth of its major social, ideological, economic and political institutions. To a greater or lesser degree, the presence of each of these groups has shaped legal and political processes and developments. For example, the separation of church and state as a constitutional principle is directly relevant to the fact of religious diversity in a demographically and geographically expanding colonial America. The organization of American religious life, that is, the geographical patterns among various sects and congregations, harkens back to the sectional-racial controversies of the pre-Civil War period as well as to patterns of settlement among immigrant groups. The changing roles of women in the work force is related to the influx of poor immigrant women. The geography of political partisanship itself—featuring until recently, a Republican North and West and a Democratic South—is explicable only by reference to controversies surrounding issues of inclusion and exclusion of African American peoples in the political process, immediately before and after the Civil War. (And to a lesser extent Asians in the West.)

American history should be inclusive, therefore, not simply for sake of fairness or "equal time," but because that is the best way to understand it. It is the commonalities and differences of our distinct histories that have shaped and now inform the whole. As a practical matter, of course, teachers will face decisions about when, at what points in the story, to distinguish the parts from the whole, and how much emphasis to give. Obviously every group is not equally relevant to every major event or development. One could choose to teach different parts of the story from different perspectives: the view of Indians on westward expansion; of women on the growth of the early factory system; of immigrant laborers on the growth of corporate giants after the Civil War; of Chinese immigrants on the Gold Rush and railroad building. The point is that running through all these possible choices is the one basic theme: that a diversity of group experiences contributed to any given pattern of national development.

Paralleling and closely interrelated with the choices among different historical content are those among different approaches to or contexts for expressing that content. Are political events and institutions the *real* history, and social developments merely soft core? More specifically, is it most important that students remember who was president when and the events associated with his administration? Or are broader developments, like changes in the way Americans lived and worked and played, more important? In large part this is a false dichotomy. One cannot properly understand the political without reference to broader social and economic forces (the clash of Indian and European world-views, industrialization, women in the work force, slavery, the development of the Southwest); nor can one understand social and economic developments without reference to the political events that stimulated, constrained, or shaped them (for example, tariffs on the growth of trade; the impact of Civil War and Reconstruction on nationalism, centralization of government, and expansion of markets). Moreover, one can choose different emphases for different parts of the story: the economic and cultural aspects of the colonial encounters between different peoples; the political, economic and ideological aspects of the American Revolution and early nation-building. Arguably, a sense of important social change and development over a broad chronological frame would enhance a student's appreciation for *and retention of* specific developments within more limited time-frames. The Curriculum Task Force has suggested how such broad chronological frameworks might better link the American national experience to world history. At the very least it should discourage the notion that knowing history means memorizing dates rather than understanding the relationships among events and developments. As a teacher I am much less concerned that students correctly place an event in its proper decade, or even half century, than that they understand its thematic relation to other events. It is even possible that the latter understanding will lead to the former aptitude.

Finally, it is generally expected that students of American history should be familiar with the basic documents in that history, such as the Constitution and Declaration of Independence. Again this is a reasonable expectation so long as these artifacts are approached as creations of specific historical processes and choices rather than as icons for veneration. Whether one chooses to venerate them or not depends on the particular teacher's, student's, and community's life experience and politics. It is a feature of American history, certainly, that these particular documents have been both venerated and repudiated by different groups at different times. There was a time in the 19th century, for example, when abolitionists were less than favorably disposed toward the Constitution, and a period in the 20th century when southern segregationists expressed similar hostility toward both the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. This seeming anomaly could provide one basis for exploring the meanings, achievements and limitations of these documents. In any event, what is required and appropriate is that they be understood in their historical context and critically examined.

This brief discussion has not and cannot exhaust the possibilities for organizing a survey of American history. What it has done, we hope, is suggest that there can be approaches that are both coherent and comprehensive, critical and patriotic, democratically conceived and intellectually rigorous. The kind of history that will prepare students for the real world of today and tomorrow is one that somehow encompasses and expresses the same contradictions and paradoxes, successes and failures, promises and betrayals of the lived experience of countless generations of Americans who have gone before us. In short it is possible to teach an American history in the schools that is true to the actual diversity of experiences that constitute the history of America.

WORLD HISTORY

by

William H. McNeill*

What can a teacher do with the buzzing, blooming confusion that is world history? The problem is two-fold. On the one hand, the subject is infinite. On the other hand, considerable attention must be paid to the heritage of Western Civilization that shaped American institutions and made the country what it is. Mere confusion will inevitably result from an indiscriminate effort to deal with everything we know about the past; and if too little emphasis is placed on the world-transforming character of Western Civilization throughout the past 500 years, then our heritage from that truly remarkable epoch of world history will be inexcusably undervalued. As yet, there are no generally agreed upon models; historians have only recently begun to try to frame a coherent vision of the history of the world.

Yet the imperatives pointing toward a world history are obvious. In the first place, our country has become part of an intensely interactive world system that no longer revolves solely upon events in Europe, as was (or at least seemed to be) the case as recently as the 1930s. To deal effectively with Asians, Africans, Latin Americans and Europeans we need to know how the historical past has shaped their diverse outlooks upon the world. In the second place, migrants from Asia, Africa and Latin America have filled our classrooms with students whose ethnic and cultural background is not "Western." They need a past they can share with Americans of European descent; and equally, Americans of European descent need a past they can share with all their fellow citizens, including the indigenous Indian population that got here before anyone else. World history fits these needs, and only world history can hope to do so.

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How then should the history of the human adventure on earth be presented in our classrooms? We need a clear and distinct idea about what matters most. Teachers might rely on a few simple rules of thumb:

1) Human power and wealth have increased through time because people strive for them. People are perpetually on the lookout for new skills or ideas that will increase their wealth or power. Borrowing interesting new capabilities from strangers may upset existing relationships, it may arouse in some the desire to maintain local practices undefiled, and it may hurt some people while it benefits others. Still, the changeability of human history results from the modification of established ways of thinking and acting provoked most often by contacts with strangers.

2) People are often unaware of the consequences and implications of particular actions or choices, so that human purposes are a very imperfect guide to what actually occurs. Side effects regularly distort purposes. Multiple causes are everywhere, and so are cross purposes. The open-endedness of human experience needs continual emphasis to counteract the tendency to treat whatever did happen as somehow foreordained.

3) Students should try to make moral judgments about the past, but only after they have thought about the norms and expectations that prevailed among those being judged. Students need to know that human beings make sense of their lives by striving to conform to the norms of behavior that group membership imposes on them.

These rules of thumb about how to approach human history still do not answer the practical question of how to distribute classroom time among the infinite possibilities that world history offers. Two overarching goals should guide decision making.

First, students need to realize that they share the earth with people whose beliefs and actions are different from their own and arise for divergent cultural heritages. The way to make this clear is to define as fully and richly as possible the distinctive national traditions of the United States, and then to sample other cultural traditions, choosing for closer study those cultures of importance for global affairs in our time. Schools must therefore teach both the national history of the United States and the history of the rest of the world, paying special attention to the principal civilizations of Eurasia (including that of Western Europe) because they shaped the world views of the majority of human beings today. Africa, Latin America, North America as well as Eurasia) came to share in the European heritage owing to the same processes of expansion that operated within Eurasia itself.

Secondly, students need to know that the various cultures and different civilizations that divide humanity are all part of a larger process of historical development whereby successful ideas and skills, wherever initiated, spread from people to people and culture to culture. Elaboration and diffusion of skills are as old as the emergence of humanity, whose distinctive trait is learning how to do things from others. Finds of obsidian and other scarce minerals in places remote from their origin show that Paleolithic hunters communicated across long distances. In subsequent ages, trading and raiding, missionary enterprise and mere wandering linked communities. This means that the One World of our time is not new. The speed of communication and rapidity of reaction have increased enormously, but the process of innovation and diffusion of skills is age old.

Indeed that is what defines the pattern of world history as distinct from the pattern of more local histories, including the history of separate civilizations. Accordingly, world history ought to be more organized around major breakthroughs in communication that, step by step, intensified interactions within ever larger regions of the earth until instant global communications became the pervasive reality of our own time. By focusing on the pattern of interaction, and showing how borrowed skills and ideas always had to be adapted to fit local geographical and cultural environments, a simple and commonsensical pattern for world history emerges within which detailed study of any chosen time and place will fit smoothly.

The course of study should begin with a sampling of the culture of pre-literate societies. Hunters and gatherers and autonomous villages of food producers prevailed in the distant past. A few such societies survived into modern times, allowing anthropologists to study them with insight and sympathy. That insight can and should be communicated to students just because their lives are set in an utterly different sort of social environment. But this can only be preliminary. The major focus of attention must be upon the major civilization of Eurasia.

Studying European, Chinese, Indian and Middle Eastern civilizations with sufficient sympathy to be able to present their ideas and institutions, so to speak, "from the inside" is a formidable task. But art and literature—the "classics: of each civilization—are available, and even small excerpts from such classics can convey something of the spirit and distinctive flavor of the civilization in question. Looking at the reproductions of great works of art and reading translations from the world's great literature invites students to react as individuals to the treasures of the human past. That experience ought to be part of every course in world history.

But random sampling of the world classics will only create confusion. Teachers can simplify without unduly distorting the reality of the four principal Eurasian cultural traditions by showing how each was built around a master institution, with a ruling idea to match. For ancient Greece, the territorial state was the ruling institution and the matching idea was natural law, applicable both to humans within the polis and to inanimate nature. For China, the extended family and the notion of decorum played a similar organizing role for the behavior of human beings and of the cosmos. For India, the ruling institution was caste and the organizing idea was transcendentalism, that is, the reality of the spiritual realm above and beyond the illusory world of sense. And for the Middle East, bureaucratic monarchy and monotheism played the same organizing roles.

Obviously, these four separate institutional-and-idea systems mingled through subsequent time. Thus, with the rise of the Roman empire and spread of Christianity, European civilization blended the Middle Eastern and part of the Indian with its Greek heritage. Similarly, China, Japan and the adjacent East Asian peoples borrowed a great deal of the Indian heritage when Buddhism spread to that part of the world. Middle Easterners combined the Greek heritage with their own after Alexander's conquests and borrowed Indiana transcendentalism a few centuries later. India, likewise, toyed with Middle Eastern ideas of bureaucratic monarchy as early as the 3rd century B.C., and explored the full complexity of both Middle Eastern and European civilizations after 1000, when first Moslem and then European conquerors intruded upon Hindu society as a new ruling caste.

Since each of the major Eurasian civilizations took form long age—before 400 B.C. in Western Eurasia and before 100 B.C. in East Asia—a course in world history must devote considerable emphasis to this classical, formative stage. But once a grasp of the enduring character of each civilization has been achieved, emphasis ought to shift to the processes if interaction across civilizational boundaries and the subsequent blending of what had begun as separate traditions.

Main landmarks of that process may be listed as follows:

1) The rise of cities, writing and occupational specialization, centered initially in the Middle East. The impact of Middle Eastern skills and ideas extended all the way across Eurasia by 1500 B.C., when the Shang dynasty brought chariots and such characteristic ideas as the seven-day week to the valley of the Yellow River.

2) The opening of regular caravan connections between China and Rome, and between the Middle East and India about 100 B.C. At about the same time, Mediterranean sailors discovered the monsoons of the Indian Ocean and began to participate in a much older sea-borne commercial network uniting the Indian Ocean with the South China Sea. The so-called Silk Road was the most famous overland route, but the caravan world extended north and south of the Silk Road proper, and in common with the navigation of the southern seas, created a slender Eurasian world market for luxury goods that could bear the cost of long distance transport.

3) The development and spread of the so-called higher religions of Judaism, Buddhism, Christianity and Islam between about 500 B.C. and 630 A.D. These faiths provided a moral universe that countered the injustices and impersonality of urban bureaucratic and hierarchical society by inviting their followers to create communities of believers wherever they found themselves. This stabilized human relations within the expanding Eurasian civilizations, and, through conscious and deliberate missionary activity, attracted neighboring peoples into the widening and ever intensifying circles of interacting civilizations.

4) The large scale domestication of camels after about 300 A.D. Caravans could now cross hot deserts, with the effect of bringing Arabia and West Africa into the interacting circles of civilizations. The Moslem Middle East became the principal center of the resulting system of trade and transport, and Moslem skills spread in every direction. In particular, Moslem merchants taught the rules of bazaar trading to the nomad world of the Eurasian steppe and also to the Chinese.

5) Cheap and dependable water transport resulted from technical advances in shipbuilding and, equally important, from the extensive canalization of rivers, especially in China. The horizon point of this development came about 1000 A.D. when long distance trade ceased to be confined to luxuries, and began to alter everyday life for ordinary people because goods of common consumption could now bear the cost of transport across hundreds and even thousands of miles. In many ways, this represents the dawn of the modern age, as much or more than the familiar date of 1500. China was the principal center of the resulting intensification of exchanges and, like the Moslems before them, the Chinese swiftly developed skills superior to the rest of the world.

6) The establishment of the political unity throughout much of Eurasia by the Mongols in the thirteenth century. This was the principal medium for the diffusion of Chinese skills westward, for as the career of Marco Polo illustrates, the Mongol peace allowed literally thousands of people to move back and forth between China and the rest of the Eurasian world. Chinese skills therefore spread westward—notably gunpowder, printing and the compass, three key technological elements in Europe's subsequent assumption of world leadership.

7) The familiar opening of the oceans by the Europeans just before and after 1500. European merchants established trading posts on the coasts and islands of the Indian Ocean and played an increasingly active part in the trade and politics of the southern seas and East and West Africa thereafter. In addition, the Americas entered abruptly into the circle of Eurasian interactions, exposing the Amerindians to repeated disease disasters and allowing Europeans to establish thriving colonies in the new World. (From this point onward, the history of the United States becomes part of world history and ought to be treated as such. Some separate treatment of United States history is needed; but world history ought not to omit our national past. Instead, world history courses should put the national past in perspective).

8) The tapping of mechanical power for industrial production and then for transport and communication, beginning in a dramatic way, about 1750. From this time onward, the three fold structure suggested in our ideal curriculum becomes a practicable guide for directing attention toward the most important traits of the modern age: a) the democratic revolution in government; b) the industrial revolution in economics; and c) the demographic upsurge.

In studying this increasingly far ranging and intensive interaction, the way each step prepared the way for the next is worth emphasizing. But as always, history is not a simple success story. Costs must be counted as well as gains. The loss of autonomy for local peoples and cultures that resulted from the arrival of powerful strangers in their midst was always the price of admission to the interacting circle of sophisticated skills and exchanges. Exposure to new and lethal infectious diseases was another cost of the civilizing process. Each expansion of the range of communications put new populations at risk, and the resulting die off from the sudden onset of smallpox and other diseases regularly weakened local peoples and sometimes crippled or even destroyed them. The case of the American Indians is the most dramatic example, but Australians, Polynesians, and peoples of the Siberian forests suffered parallel disease disasters in modern times; and catastrophic disease encounters in earlier ages—the Black Death and the Antonine plagues—are also worth attention.

World history built along these lines can prepare students to live in the interactive world of the twenty-first century more serenely and wisely than would otherwise be possible for them. It would also give appropriate weight and attention to the primacy of Western civilization in the last five hundred years.

Study of world history with the help of simple ideas like these can be an intellectually uplifting experience; it is also an essential preparation for citizenship. World history is therefore very much worth doing, and worth doing well. it belongs with the national history of our country at the core of K-12 social studies.

WHY STUDY POLITICS?

by

Richard A. Brody*

Introduction

Political science is the study of politics, government, policy, and relations of authority and power. Political scientists approach the study of these matters in a variety of ways and in various settings: Some political scientists focus on American national politics and political institutions; others concentrate on the politics of other nations. Many political scientists study the domestic politics of a particular nation; others seek to understand the links between nations in the international system.

The ways in which understanding is sought are as diverse as the manifestations of politics studied by political scientists. Political scientists approach their subject through the detailed examination of the thought of political philosophers—ancient and modern—through analyses of the historical development of a political institution or policy, and by means of detailed examinations of the day-to-day workings of contemporary governments. Some study the history of war to illuminate the sources of danger in the relations of today's nations. Political scientists take polls, examine the speeches of politicians, study the actions of legislators and judges, and probe the beliefs and personalities of political leaders. Irrespective of differences in what they study and the way they study it, political scientists share a desire to know as much as possible about the way human beings think, organize, and act politically.

All citizens have a stake in the understanding of politics and political processes. Our day-to-day lives, the quality of our communities, the health, prosperity, and safety of our nation, indeed, our very continuation as a species, are affected by politics and yet, for most Americans, politics is something out there, remote, troublesome, confusing, and uninteresting. In recent elections in the United States, only about half of those who were old enough to vote for president did so; only one third choose to vote in congressional elections in non-presidential years; and these civic acts show the American people at its most politically active.

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* Brody is Professor of Political Science at Stanford University and Chair of the Education Committee of the American Political Science Association.

Political scientists believe that the sense of remoteness of politics is partly a natural consequence of the rhythms and involvements of one's everyday life—our schools, work, families, friends, and amusements are simply more immediate and personally involving. But the sense of remoteness, we believe, is also the result of a failure of civic education. Americans fail to see connections between politics and their lives because they have not been taught that the connections exist and are personally relevant.

In whatever degree it is "natural," the sense of remoteness still has consequences for the individual and the society. In a pluralist polity—one in which public policy, *inter alia*, reflects a result of conflicts of interests—non-participation is a choice to be politically irrelevant. Society suffers from the loss of the expression of the non-participant's interests, and, accordingly, public policy is in some degrees skewed. But a free citizen should be able to choose to abstain from political life. All we can ask is that the choice be informed by the best information we have about the consequences of abstention and participation.

We believe that the "best information" is to be obtained from an understanding of the knowledge of the world that political science can offer. Bringing political science knowledge into pre-collegiate education is best accomplished through the establishment of collaborative relationships between pre-collegiate teaching professionals and professional political scientists, through a reconstruction of social studies curricula to reflect political science theory, knowledge, methods, and habits of mind, and through the preparation of pre-collegiate teachers to handle the modified curricula.

Purposes

The basic purposes that should be served by the schools in teaching children about government and politics include the following:

> *Political Science education in elementary and secondary schools should transmit to students a knowledge of the "realities" of political life as well as exposing them to the cultural ideals of American democracy.*

Schools should not communicate to students highly unrealistic and romanticized images of human politics. The existence of conflict, the importance of self-interest, the failures of public policies and political institutions to achieve stated objectives, and inequalities in the distribution of political power are examples of political realities about which students can and should learn in order to develop a capacity to reason critically about political process. This is not to say that we should teach political cynicism; it is to say that an understanding of the distance between "ideal" and "real" is a motivation for political participation and an understanding of reality is indispensable to effective participation.

> *Political Science education in elementary and secondary schools should transmit to students a knowledge of political behavior and processes as well as knowledge about formal governmental institutions and legal structures.*

Formal governmental institutions and legal procedures are but one facet of political systems. The behavior of individuals and the dynamics of social processes are equally important aspects of political life. Pre-collegiate education should acquaint students with both aspects of political life.

> *Political Science education in elementary and secondary schools should transmit to students knowledge about political systems other than the American system, and particularly knowledge about the international system.*

The study of other political systems provides a context for the understanding of the American political system and can promote the realization that other political arrangements exist. Moreover, the importance of other nations and the international system make studying them an essential part of global education and indispensable for understanding American politics.

> *Political Science education in elementary and secondary schools should develop within students a capacity to think about political phenomena in conceptually sophisticated ways.*

"Conceptual sophistication" implies that students will be able to appreciate both the particular and the general. Which is to say, students will come to understand that a given political institution has features in common with other political institutions but also is in some ways unique. It also implies a capacity to view similarities and differences in comparable political phenomena as largely matters of degree rather than kind.

> *Political Science education in elementary and secondary schools should develop within students a capacity to distinguish facts and values and the understanding that both play central roles in political decisions and policies.*

The study of politics brings into clear focus the central role that "purposes," "ends," and "values" play in human affairs. One cannot understand the political processes that yield public policy unless one understands that ends are being sought. Changes in public policy over time, within one polity, may result from shifts in the distribution of power of groups interested in the policy area but they also result in shifts in the values—the development of new political consciousness—held by participating citizens. In a word, "values" are indispensable political "facts."

At the same time, students should know that there are other types of political "facts": that political roles, institutions, processes, and behaviors also affect the shape of public policy and that knowing the "ends" of public policy is, in and of itself, insufficient for understanding politics. An interest group can share policy goals with others and yet dispute, disagree and, otherwise, be in conflict with them. Political conflict can be about means as well as ends.

> *Political Science education in elementary and secondary schools should develop within students an understanding of the capabilities and skills needed to participate effectively and democratically in the life of the society.*

The development of socially effective and democratically oriented citizens has been a traditional objective of civic education. Political scientists believe that the elements of a capacity to effectively participate in the politics of a free society include:

(1) an interest in public affairs and a sense of "public regardedness"; (2) an ability to tolerate and respect conflict and divergent values and beliefs; (3) an ability to think through the feasibility and consequences of alternative courses of action and to assess the likelihood that an alternative will achieve its desired goal; (4) an ability to consider the perspectives and values of others; and (5) an ability to assess the long-run as well as short-run consequences of a preferred alternative. More succinctly, the capacity to effectively participate is grounded in knowledge of the political system and a clear understanding of what one is trying to accomplish.

Cooperation and Collaboration in Developing Curricula

The effective introduction of political science into pre-collegiate curricula requires cooperation and collaboration between political scientists and pre-collegiate teachers. The integration of both sets of professional skills is essential to successful curricula reform. Without the political scientist's theoretical understanding and knowledge of politics, reform will fail or be meaningless. Without the pre-collegiate teacher's theoretical understanding and knowledge of children's capacity to learn and the most effective means of teaching, reform will fail or be meaningless.

Some examples of cooperation and collaboration already exist: Both political scientists and secondary school teachers were members of the *Ad Hoc* Committee which set the stage for the Advanced Placement (AP) program in American and comparative politics and government. Professionals from both groups share responsibilities on the Test Development Committee which structures the program. The American Political Science Association (APSA) has established a departmental membership category for social studies departments in secondary schools. The program of the annual meeting of the APSA includes panels (on topics in comparative and American politics) especially designed for the secondary school teacher. Summer workshops for teachers of AP American and Comparative Government and Politics are being offered.

Such opportunities for cooperation and collaboration need to be expanded from the AP program to the full pre-collegiate curriculum. But the AP program is not a model that can be universally generalized. In essence, the AP program involves transporting a freshman collegiate political science course to high school. The transportation from college to high school is not problem free, but the problems are not necessarily those that will be encountered in attempting to reformulate a wider variety of curricula. What is needed is a method for bringing political science materials—concepts, theories, and findings—in an appropriate fashion into the K–12 social studies curricula.

The development of the "method" will necessarily be collaborative and involve the expertise of politcal scientists, as subject matter specialists, and those whose expertise lies in developming curricula apposite to the learning capabilities of students K–12.

PSYCHOLOGY AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM

by

Cynthia G. Baum and Ira S. Cohen*

As a science and profession concerned with the study of human behavior, psychology bridges the natural and social sciences. The content of psychology can contribute to the goals of a K-12 social studies education in a number of ways: in the development of self knowledge; in the understanding of the behavior of others both individually and within the sociocultural context; in the acquisition of study skills; and in the understanding of and preparation for the variety of roles played by individuals (e.g., family, parenthood, gender, ethnic, class and career). In addition to presenting the content of the discipline, psychology attempts to encourage a mode of critical thinking through the reliance on objective methods of inquiry. Thus, as psychological theories and assertions are open to questions and modifications in the light of new information, so are students of psychology encouraged to evaluate their personal theories and beliefs in light of objective information.

The contributions of psychology have become increasingly acknowledged at the high school level with the offering of senior level courses. The APA does not attempt to offer a prescribed curriculum, due to the varied nature of the discipline of psychology and of local needs and interests. Instead, the recommendations are presented so that they can be adapted to situations in local communities.

Goals and Objectives

There are many different approaches to teaching psychology. Some teachers emphasize the rigorous scientific content of psychology, whereas others see psychology primarily as a vehicle for educating students about themselves. Each goal is important and one need not exclude the other. The course should give students an opportunity to explore subjects studied by behavioral scientists, to learn how psychology is applied in solving human problems, to experiment and to learn and evaluate methods of research. Students should be challenged to relate psychological concepts to their own lives. The study of psychology should lead to an appreciation of and tolerance for individual differences.

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* For the Committee on Psychology in the Secondary Schools of the American Psychological Association (APA). Dr. Baum is Director, Special Projects, Office of Educational Affairs. Dr. Cohen is Director, Office of Educational Affairs. This discussion is based in part on recommendations adapted from the *Statement for the High School Psychology Course*, APA, 1986.

Listed below are several objectives that should be considered in planning a course of study. The objectives to be emphasized will be determined by each teacher.

1. Students should study the major core concepts and theories of psychology. They should be able to define key terms and to use these terms in their everyday vocabulary. Students should also be able to compare and contrast major theories in psychology.

2. Students should understand the basic skills of psychological research. They should be able to devise simple research projects, interpret and generalize from results and evaluate the general validity of research reports.

3. Students should be able to apply psychological concepts to their own lives. They should be able to recognize psychological principles when they are encountered in everyday situations.

4. Students should develop critical thinking skills. They should become aware of the danger of blindly accepting or rejecting any theory of human nature and institutions without careful, objective evaluation.

5. Students should build their reading, writing and discussion skills.

6. Students should learn about the ethical standards governing the work of psychologists. They should maintain high ethical standards and sensitivity in applying the principles of psychology to themselves, other people and other organisms.

The Core Curriculum

The core curriculum introduces the methods of inquiry and evaluation used by psychologists. A course should not carry the label "psychology" unless it provides the student with some appreciation for these fundamental concepts and areas.

The recommended core curriculum includes the following content areas: Scientific methods of psychology; Growth and development; Cognition and learning; Personality; Mental health and behavioral disorders; and Social psychology. Individual teachers may structure any of the six core curriculum areas so as to include different groupings of topics. For example, the topic of cognitive development may be taught in conjunction with learning or with development; personal adjustment may be taught in conjunction with personality or mental health and behavior disorders.

Some major areas of psychology are not included in the core curriculum recommended for a one semester course. Other topics that are considered to be core curriculum of psychology include biological bases of behavior, individual differences, sensation and perception, language and communication, emotions and motivation. These topics might be appropriate for an advanced or second semester course at the high school level.

Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes

The Social and Behavioral Sciences Panel of Project 2061* has defined the knowledge, skills and attitudes that would comprise literacy in these fields. Some of these recommendations are summarized below as they apply to the study of psychology, with illustrations of how they may be introduced in the curriculum core of a high school psychology course.

Scientific Methods

"The scientific approach to understanding differs from that based on common sense by following strict rules of inquiry, including the use of empirical observations and the explicit formulations of hypotheses and theories..." Phenomena under study are defined"...in ways that make possible the selection, objective observation and quantification of the phenomena." The use of control groups attempts to refute as well as confirm hypotheses and the reliability of observations are also hallmarks of the scientific method.

Specific methods of scientific investigation worthy of inclusion in the high school psychology course include naturalistic observation, case histories, longitudinal and cross-sectional studies, surveys, correlational and experimental designs, interview, testing and statistics. Because of the use of human beings and animals as subjects of psychological investigation, special attention to ethics in research is warranted.

Growth and Development

"Development in normal children is characterized by the regular appearance of a set of universal qualities at particular ages...." Human functioning becomes ever more complex as a result both of brain maturation and of appropriate learning experiences.

Students should understand that development across the life cycle unfolds at different rates for different individuals and circumstances. Characteristics such as temperament as well as variations in experiences are thought to determine the rate of appearance of developmental characteristics as well as differences in motives, desires and standards. "If the environment fails to provide specific kinds of stimulation at the right time, appropriate biological and psychological development may fail to occur."

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* American Association for the Advancement of Science, *Project 2061: Science for All Americans* (Washington: AAAS, 1989). Mortimer H. Appley and Winifred B. Maher, *Social and Behavioral Sciences*.

Specific areas of development that may be included in a high school course include cognitive, language, emotional, social, moral and sex role development. The influences of heredity and environment, of temperament and of socializing agents (e.g., peers, family, etc.) may also be included.

Cognition and Learning

Cognitive psychology is the study of how people perceive, remember, reason and think. The study of cognitive processes and their implications for a remarkably broad span of psychological studies—from psychotherapy to creativity to psycholinguistics and artificial intelligence—is arguably one of the most significant new directions for psychology in the past 30 years.

Students should learn how these important cognitive processes function. They should learn, too, that "patterns of cognition are influenced by information presently available, experiences, and ongoing biological and psychological processes (including motivation, expectations, belief systems, attitudes, arousal levels, language and social factors)."

In addition to studying the principles of cognition, students should gain an understanding of the basic learning processes, including classical (Pavlovian) and operant (instrumental) conditioning, social learning, insight learning, and modeling. Further, the study of learning might offer the instructor an opportunity to discuss related matters such as intelligence, study skills and factors affecting performance (e.g., practice, anxiety).

Personality

The concept of personality refers to the relatively stable set of characteristics that makes one person different from another. This relative (but hardly invariable) consistency and these individual differences are questions that psychologists address with their research on persons and their development of tests and other assessment techniques. Their efforts at putting together all those factors that shape personality are reflected in the various personality theories, probably none of which gives a complete account, but each of which no doubt makes some contribution to our total understanding of the person—why both biological factors and environmental circumstances affect different people in different ways. Students should be aware of the principal theories that have been influential, not only in the psychological study of the person, but also in the various social sciences and literature. Prominently included would likely be the psychoanalytic, behavioral, humanistic and trait and type theories.

Students should gain some understanding of both the limits and potentialities of traits (clusters of behavioral tendencies that appear to have some cross-situational stability) as significant constructs in the major personality theories. Illustrative here would be such traits as anxiety, dependency, aggression and introversion. Perhaps most important, students should learn that, despite the consistency implied in the concepts of temperament and traits, situational factors are likely to have a significant impact on human behavior.

Mental Health and Behavior Disorders

What is considered to be adjusted or maladjusted varies both within and across cultures. Norms vary in the breadth of their definition, allowing for the acceptance of greater or lesser diversity, and can change in conjunction with other societal changes. Students should study the circumstances under which individuals are likely to be judged as maladjusted, such as when their behaviors, emotions or thoughts become problematic to themselves or others with whom they come in contact, including societal institutions.

Students should become familiar with classification issues in psychopathology, behavioral manifestations of dysfunction and etiological factors. These latter factors will involve biological influences, social influences (cultural, political and economic),and psychological influences (personality organization, coping mechanisms and interpersonal social support). Awareness of the role of psychological stress in determining vulnerability to disease and of psychosocial factors related to health behavior are also important. Furthermore, students will benefit from knowledge of psychotherapies derived from various theoretical perspectives (e.g., individual, interpersonal, organizational/environmental and institutional).

Social Psychology

"Social relationships, and the roles played by individuals and groups, help to determine the views and expectations they have of themselves and of others and the ways in which others view and interact with them....Such identities and expectations also contribute to the degree to which individuals are tied to their cultures; help determine how people behave, profit from and contribute...to each other and to the larger groups and organizations to which they belong; and shape what people expect (for example recognition, friendship, guidance or hostility) from others as members of a group or category and as individuals."

Topics appropriate for a high school psychology course include the following: attitude formation and change, conformity, persuasion and person perception; interpersonal relationships and social attraction; group processes, leadership and organizational behavior; sex role stereotyping, human sexuality, gender identity, prejudice, discrimination and ethnic and cultural diversity.

Methods

The abstract concepts of psychology are more accessible if illustrated by concrete exercise, demonstration or experiment. It is recommended that high school teachers use a variety of methods, for example, lecture, discussion, inquiry, audiovisual presentation, case history analysis, role playing, simulation, field work, demonstrations, experiments, research projects and writing assignments. Teachers are not conducting group therapy sessions, but they can and should be supportive of students who wish to share personal insights and experiences with their classmates. The chosen methods should involve students actively in the learning process, promoting their psychological as well as intellectual needs.

SOCIOLOGY

by

Paul S. Gray*

For the past 80 years, sociology has been a part of the pre-college social studies curriculum, but its position is precarious. As a discipline it has not become institutionalized as have subjects such as history or government. What sociologists actually do is sometimes difficult for the public to understand or to grasp accurately, but we must share some responsibility for our clouded image because we have not always presented a clear picture of what sociology is. Three prominent intellectual threads within the discipline—positivism, social amelioration and systems theory analysis—have at times encountered resistance among those responsible for planning pre-collegiate education.

Beginning in the 1920s a portion of American sociology came to identify itself as an objective science which could be "value free" in the collection and analysis of data and which could produce completely unbiased scientific information for use by expert decision-makers. Although this positivistic position now seems exaggerated and even radical to some contemporary sociologists, it was boosted during the 1940s and 1950s by advances in computer technology and data analysis capability. The result was that modern quantitative sociology became too technical for pre-collegiate curricula. At the same time, the positivistic emphasis on social engineering and expertise aroused suspicion among some educators, because it appeared to run contrary to the democratic ethos.

It was not only the technocratic side of the discipline which took the betterment of social conditions as a goal. The "Chicago School" of American sociology and its followers undertook qualitative community and occupational studies which shed light on the problems of poverty, urban congestion and economic exploitation. Such graphic description was often found to be discouraging or depressing for American youth growing up in the halcyon days of the 1950s. Later, as student activism became more common in secondary schools, there was a modest demand for sociology as an elective. However, in spite of young people's undeniable interest in social problems, a thorough and systematic exposition of their causes can strike sensitive nerves at the local level. In recent years, what passes for pre-collegiate sociology is almost exclusively personal and social adjustment—an emphasis on social psychology to the neglect of more structural sociology.

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Faced with the lack of qualified teachers, as well as competition from mandated courses in history and civics which seemed to squeeze out sociology, the discipline has made only occasional attempts to increase its influence at the precollege level. In fact, it is only over the past ten to fifteen years that we have been emerging from a generation of scholarship which, in its positivism and search for theoretical universals in human behavior, was judged by many to be too complex for younger learners, if not too controversial.

This state of affairs must change if sociology is to realize its potential to influence the citizens and policy makers of tomorrow. As a society we now face enormous challenges as well as opportunities, which call for critical thinking and heightened awareness of our world. The sociological perspective is one key ingredient in making an effective response to the dilemmas we face as a nation and as a planet.

Living in the late 20th century, the individual is confronted with a range of complex choices and unsolved problems unprecedented in human history. People must support themselves and their families, in a competitive, even predatory environment. They need to work at jobs which are in some measure intrinsically satisfying. They have to stay healthy, feel safe and learn how to get along with others who may not share their backgrounds or beliefs. These issues are among what the sociologist C. Wright Mills called the "private troubles" which confront us in modern society. In trying to make effective choices, "common sense" often fails us. We often feel isolated and confused because the sheer volume of information which must be processed before making decisions is overwhelming and beyond our immediate experience.

Surely, one of the main purposes of education should be to provide the learner with some insight in dealing with such choices and problems. But how successful are our schools in this effort? Many negative assessments of American education in recent years have pointed to poor instruction in science, mathematics and writing, or the absence in rigor in teaching history and geography. Improvements in these areas are of course vital, but would not, in themselves, stem the tide of school dropouts, drug use, community disintegration and voter apathy. Schools can do more to reduce students' isolation and confusion by bringing real life issues into the classroom. Freed from overly rigid positivism and the jargon of grand theoretical debate, contemporary sociology can render valuable assistance in achieving this goal.

Sociology is the most encyclopedic of the social sciences. It is the study of human groups, their formation and functioning. The specific concerns of sociological research include such disparate phenomena as child abuse, the development of Third World Countries and the emerging patterns of industrial relations in American business. Sociology is broad enough to include the micro-level behavior of individual families as well as the macro-level behavior of entire population age cohorts. As we have noted, what links these concerns together under one umbrella is the search for empirical and theoretical generalizations about human behavior as well as the desire to improve social conditions within the local community, the nation and the world.

Even more important for young learners, however, is a sociological perspective which insists upon the relationship between private troubles and public issues.* For example, international competition and the globalization of the economy have changed the structure of the American labor force, creating an over-supply of workers trained only to perform tasks which are needed less and less as years go by. Students' families, therefore, may experience the "private troubles" of financial hardship and unemployment as a result of the "public issues" of technological innovation and free trade. Young people pondering which career to choose (a private decision, to be sure) can predicate their decisions on projected demand for certain types of work in the future. Because sociology helps to make these connections, it should, if properly taught, prepare informed citizens and keep students motivated to master the factual and historical detail with which they may otherwise grow impatient. This is the worthy promise of the discipline. However, we must also consider how best to package sociology at the pre-collegiate level, and how best to teach it.

Professional sociologists are engaged in lively debate, assessing which theoretical outlooks appear to be the most productive in explaining various aspects of human behavior, and which variables are most important to isolate and measure. The reason for these debates is that society in its entirety is so complex. There is therefore an "incomplete" aspect to sociology; it is a process of understanding our world, rather than a series of absolute answers.

Because its agenda is so ambitious and its findings often require a tolerance for ambiguity, it is difficult to summarize the entire discipline in a format which could readily find its way into the high school curriculum. There will always be a limited market for a sociology elective, perhaps for advanced students. However, in all other social studies offerings at whatever grade level, it is desirable to include "modules" or units illustrating the sociological perspective and fostering an attitude of critical awareness. Each of these units or modules may come from any one of the many recognized sub-fields within the discipline of sociology, e.g.:

Deviance and Social Control — "Why do People Take Drugs?"
The Family — "Coping with Divorce"
Social Stratification — "Inequality in America"
Education — "What Do We Learn, and Why?"
Gerontology — "Caring for the Aged Among Us"

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* C. Wright Mills, *The Sociological Imagination*, New York: Oxford University Press 1959

Indeed, the list of sub-fields and potential questions for examination seems almost endless. Each of these issues is of personal concern to students, but also taps larger public issues with which policy makers will be grappling over the next generation.

An important point here is that this and other, similar material belongs throughout the pre-college curriculum, not just in "problems of democracy," or in a senior high school elective. Drug taking or social inequality, for instance, may be examined in historical context, both in the United States and throughout the world. Similarly, younger children might explore what their counterparts were being taught in ancient times, in medieval Europe or in colonial America.

Each unit or module, whether included in World History, U.S. History, or 7th grade social studies, would have a different empirical focus. It would be highly desirable to have teachers involved in choosing the modules they use. However, the choice of module is less important than is the idea of including several units throughout a child's education. Taken together, they would expose students to a conceptual framework for understanding their world, one which is likely to be remembered and used long after formal education is completed.

This conceptual framework for pre-collegiate sociology might include the following goals for students:

1) Creating an awareness of culture, in general, and American culture and values in particular. Fostering an attitude of mutual respect for the sub-cultures among us;

2) Creating an appreciation of the process of socialization (learning the rules necessary to function in society). Examining the various agents of socialization, and the potential consequences of changes occurring in the socialization process;

3) Exploring dilemmas of freedom and justice in society. How far should we go in creating equality of opportunity for everyone?

4) Establishing criteria for evidence and proof in making an argument. Understanding that ideas with which we disagree may nonetheless be expressed skillfully and effectively;

5) Placing the study of American social problems and institutions in a worldwide, comparative context. Emphasizing cultural relativity.

Deciding which empirical topics need covering at which grade levels, and unifying these instructional modules via an overarching set of sociological concepts—these are daunting but reachable goals. Some beginning suggestions have been outlined above; doubtless many more will follow. But, it is just as critical that we pay attention to the manner in which this sensitive and valuable material is taught. Respect for students and their views, as well as for their own efforts in solving the problems which confront them, these orientations are crucial for the teacher of sociology, especially at the pre-collegiate level. This is surely one instance where successful curriculum reform goes hand in hand with workshops designed to promote effective teaching—mastery of material as well as the ability to listen to what students are saying. It would certainly be ironic if after recognizing how important the sociological perspective is in the education of our children, we would forget that, for students of sociology, the medium is the message.

APPENDIX

SOCIAL SCIENCE TASK FORCE FOR PRE-COLLEGIATE EDUCATION

MEMBERS

American Anthropological Association
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American Economic Association
1313 21st Avenue South, Suite 809
Nashville, TN 37212
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American Historical Association
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Washington, DC 20003
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American Psychological Association
1200 17th Street, N.W.
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American Sociological Association
1722 N Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 833-3410

Association of American Geographers
1710 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
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Joint Council on Economic Education
432 Park Avenue South
New York, NY 10016
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National Council for Geographic Education
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National Council for the Social Studies
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Organization of American Historians
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